Reading Aloud in Foreign Language Teaching

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Travail de fin d'études

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1   Introduction

Studies on reading aloud often deal with reading acquisition of young children in their native language. The benefits of this practice are well known, and acknowledged by scientists, as chapter 3 will display. This thesis on reading aloud will analyze reading aloud in second language teaching and the many theories that have been analyzed in order to understand its advantages. The introduction first presents some definitions of reading aloud that one should keep in mind while reading this thesis. It also describes the structure of this thesis, as well as its main arguments. Based on my experience as a student teacher, and as a pupil, I realize that reading aloud is not practiced regularly in language teaching nowadays. According to Sam Duncan, reading aloud is not considered to be the typical type of reading, but it has not always been this way (Radway 1994; Long 2003; Manguel 1996; Pugh 1978; Duncan 2008, 2012, cited in Duncan 2018). Chapter two will show that reading aloud has not always been atypical. Therefore, the idea of this thesis emerged with questions on this observation: why was reading aloud promoted in the last century, but not anymore? Hans Lösener's conference paper on this matter starts with the same kind of questioning (Lösener 2019). Even though reading aloud is considered to be the norm for first language acquisition by most theories on reading, it is different for a second language. Nevertheless, reading aloud presents many advantages for second language learners, which is why this thesis will explore the benefits of this practice in language teaching: reading aloud is beneficial for second language acquisition, which is why it should be used more often in foreign language teaching. First, the history of reading aloud in Belgian teaching methods will be analyzed. Then, theory of this practice will be explained. Chapter four will show the analysis of Belgian frames of reference, as well as school programs regarding reading aloud, and chapter five will show the results of a questionnaire on this practice realized with second language teachers. Finally, some ideas to use reading aloud in language teaching will be stated.

Reading aloud has been defined by many linguists. This paragraph states one explanation of this practice by linguists, as well as the definition given by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*. With these different insights, one can read both scientific definitions, as well as the didactic approach of reading aloud. Even though scientists do not all agree on the advantages of reading aloud, they agree on its definition: "At a basic level, reading aloud involves translating orthographic information into a phonological response" (McKay et al. 2008: 1495). Reading aloud is the vocalization of written material, and according to Neil Anderson, reading aloud is a cognitively demanding practice:

> Reading aloud follows from the activation of codes from visual input and is accomplished via two pathways working in parallel: a phonological pathway comprising connections between orthography and phonology and a semantic pathway comprising mappings among semantic, phonological, and orthographic representations. Reading aloud is considered to involve both pathways and all types of representation regardless of the lexicality, familiarity, or frequency of the items being read. (Anderson, cited in Nation & Cocksey 2009: 297)

This definition represents the concept of reading aloud as it is acknowledged by most linguists nowadays. It shows the different pathways that are used in order to translate written items into phonological occurrences.

2   History of reading aloud in Belgian teaching methods

In order to understand the concept of reading aloud today, one needs to have some knowledge of the history of reading aloud. This chapter will focus on the teaching methods recommended for language classes during the last century in Belgian schools. This chapter is based on Christian Puren's book, *Histoire des méthodologies d'enseignement des langues vivantes* (1988), on Germain Simons' course notes, "Aperçu historique des méthodes d'enseignement en langues étrangères : de la méthode grammaire-traduction à la perspective actionnelle" (2019), and on Meta Lah's article, "La lecture à haute voix en classe de langue étrangère – une activité à réhabiliter ?" (2013).[1]

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[1] Two more books might have informed this chapter on teaching methods: *Histoire de l'enseignement et de la méthodologie des langues vivantes en Belgique des origines au début du XXe siècle : enseignement secondaire officiel* by Raymond Maréchal (1972) and *Évolution de l'enseignement des langues: 5 000 ans d'histoire* by Claude Germain (1993). Unfortunately, I could not consult them because of the Covid-19 pandemic.

Nowadays, reading aloud is not recommended by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, and this document influences foreign language teaching (Lah 2013: 200). This chapter will show that it has not always been this way. Indeed, the indirect method, also called the "grammar-translation" method, was used to promote reading aloud in Belgium. Moreover, the research conducted for this dissertation shows that there are many documents on reading aloud that date back to the nineteenth century: no fewer than eleven books on reading aloud were written during that period. These books are in French, which shows that it was common to read aloud in the French-speaking cultures of the nineteenth century. As for today, one can only find two books in the ULiege library that treat the subjects of orality and reading in French simultaneously: *Pour une lecture-écriture : littérature et pédagogie* by Jean-Pierre Goldenstein (1984) and *Phonographie : la représentation écrite de l'oral en français* by Rudolf Mahrer (2017). This observation shows that there has been a change between the nineteenth century and today regarding reading aloud. However, Lah studies the manuals from each method explained below and realizes that reading aloud has never been mentioned in official manuals for second language learning, even though reading aloud was used in past practice (Lah 2013: 203-204).

Thus, this chapter will analyze the teaching methods from the end of the nineteenth century until today in order to understand this change of position about reading aloud. With Puren's book, Simons' course notes, and Lah's article, this chapter will show that changes of focus in the goals of language learning lead to changes in language acquisition methods. In other words, it will be demonstrated, that reading aloud is considered a tool that can help learners acquire a new language only in specific methods. It is not seen as an essential part of language learning that should be present regardless of the method used. However, this chapter will also show that, even though reading aloud is not imposed by legal documents, it has been used in practice in many methods used in Belgium.

In the nineteenth century, the recommended method was the indirect method, also called the grammar-translation method (Simons 2019: 1). It was first used by the Anglo-Saxons and was then adopted in France and the French community in Belgium (Puren 1988: 17). The term "traditional methodology" is also used by Puren to describe this practice (Puren 1988: 18). According to Maréchal (1972, cited in Simons 2019: 2), the indirect method is a teaching method that promoted translations, reading aloud, studying by heart, and reciting aloud. This method in foreign language teaching followed the example of classical language teaching (Puren 1988: 18). This grammar-translation method is made up of four components: theory

(grammar), practical teaching, lexicon, and cultural teaching. Teaching theory meant explaining grammatical rules and practicing these rules by doing translations. Grammar rules were explicit, had to be studied analytically, and the learner's native language was not prohibited but was rather considered to be useful in foreign language teaching (Puren 1988: 35; 58). Practical teaching was based on conversation with, vocabulary lists, texts, questions, and answers on translations, among other things. Questions and answers were not practiced in interaction but had to be studied by heart (Puren 1988: 47). Lexicon did not only mean studying vocabulary in the foreign language but it was also the study of etymology. The focus was more on cultural aspects of the foreign language than on communication (Delaunay 1971: 5). Learning a foreign language based on its cultural aspects means studying stylistics, history, and politics (Puren 1988: 35-36). As for literature, students had to analyze literary works and acquire some knowledge of the history of literature (Puren 1988: 58). Students had to work individually because individual work was believed to be the most efficient (Puren 1988: 39). Effort was considered to be the only way to learn; the goal was not to find ways to make learning easier: students had to memorize consciously and repeat autonomously (Puren 1988: 40).

Historians have more information on the use of the method during the second half of the nineteenth century because this period is documented more precisely. Archives about the indirect method during this era deplored the lack of efficiency of grammar-translation teaching (Puren 1988: 58). However, according to Puren, these claims are based on the results of ancient language teaching and need to be considered carefully. They are indeed subjective assessments: they are not based on empirical research in foreign language teaching, but only on comparisons between classical language instruction and the lack of efficiency of second language teaching. The educationalist Martin Hartmann's study, on the other hand, demonstrates, with empirical research, that a considerable percentage of students benefited from the indirect method, which was consequently effective for some learners (Puren 1988: 58). He objectifies his conclusion with a detailed investigation into foreign language teaching in France at the end of the nineteenth century (Puren 1988: 36). Nevertheless, most specialists still believed that a new method was necessary. Indeed, Hartmann claimed that a considerable number of students could acquire a foreign language with the grammar-translation method, but the percentage of successful learners was still too low for other educationalists. Therefore, from 1850, the latter started to look into a more practical approach that was not based on the teaching of ancient languages (Puren 1988: 36). The transition period between the direct and the indirect method was a time of experimentation for some teachers, who tried out their own method in their

classrooms. For example, some of them used songs (Puren 1988: 58). According to Puren, the beginning of the indirect method period did not present any didactic coherence, and, as stated by him, the lack of coherence is typical of traditional ancient language teaching:

> Les différentes activités d'enseignement/apprentissage y [dans la méthode indirecte] sont en effet juxtaposées les unes aux autres dans un ordre aléatoire, sans qu'un quelconque « schéma de classe » organise leur coordination dans ce que l'on appellera bientôt la « leçon », ou, plus tard, l'« unité didactique ». Au cours d'une même classe par exemple pouvaient être récitées une liste de mots et quelques règles de grammaire, dicté un poème, corrigé un thème écrit et commencée une version orale, sans que ces différents élément présentent entre eux la moindre cohésion thématique ou grammaticale : le vocabulaire ne se rapporte pas encore à un centre d'intérêt unique et est choisi au hasard des exemples ou des regroupements grammaticaux, et aucune réapparition des mêmes mots ou variation des mêmes structures n'est programmée. (Puren 1988: 41)

The indirect method was based on the teaching of ancient languages because modern language teachers wanted to valorize their subject, as well as their professional status in society, and ancient language teaching was prestigious (Puren 1988: 37; 59). The quotation presented above shows the incoherence linked with the model of classical language teaching, but also shows that reading aloud was used in the indirect method, with dictation for example.

Written language was the main focus in this method, but pronunciation was explicitly taught in the first phases of learning (Puren 1988: 47), and oral exercises were used during this period, such as recitation and reading aloud (Lah 2013: 202). The fact that reading aloud was important in this method explains why many books on this subject were written during the nineteenth century. Students had to read aloud a large number of texts in order to learn a new language: oral exercises were a verbalization of written works and consisted of reading texts aloud that had previously been used for translations (Puren 1988: 43; 46). Moreover, reading aloud was used by instructors to practice oral translations with students: teachers read sentences aloud and learners had to translate them (Puren 1988: 49). There was a gradation in pronunciation exercises: students had to start by reading aloud texts that were quite simple and gradually worked toward more complex texts; readers first started with words, then sentences, then texts (Cuq and Gruca 2002, cited in Lah 2013: 202). Nevertheless, reading aloud was not explicitly mentioned in official documents from 1840 on the grammar-translation method: "Pour la prononciation, après en avoir exposé les règles, on y accoutumera l'oreille par des

dictées fréquentes, et on fera apprendre par coeur et réciter convenablement les morceaux dictés. Enfin, dans les derniers mois de l'année, on expliquera des auteurs faciles de prose" (Germain 2001, cited in Lah 2013: 202).

Official texts remained vague about the specific didactic method that needed to be used for foreign language teaching in the nineteenth century (Puren 1988: 34). However, in the late period of the indirect method, legal documents recommended a list of exercises that should be used in language classrooms. According to Puren, these exercises were exclusively oral: "Il n'est proposé qu'une énumération d'exercices oraux : de prononciation, de récitation, de thèmes (oraux), de conversation à base de questions/réponses, de lecture expliquée d'auteurs" (1988: 35). Orality, based on written documents, was valued in the indirect method, as was reading aloud: one exercise described above promoted reading aloud (Puren 1988: 18). This importance of reading aloud in the nineteenth century is further suggested by Léon Ricquier's 1879 article, entitled "La lecture à haute voix (lecture expressive)" (1879). Riquier cites the French minister for public education, M. Bardoux, according to whom reading aloud was essential in order to exercise one's rights as a citizen. Bardoux associated reading aloud with a kind of art that was necessary for a democratic society (Ricquier 1879: 629). This skill was regarded as particularly important at the time but, according to the article, it was not taught properly at school, for Ricquier speaks of "l'étude si importante et cependant si négligée de cet art dans les programmes de l'enseignement public" (1879: 629). According to Ricquier, even though teaching methods in France emphasized reading aloud, it needed to be taught more efficiently by instructors. Some schools however encouraged the practice of reading aloud more emphatically. Ricquier wanted to understand how these institutions worked and studied teachers who promoted enjoyment while reading aloud. Ricquier concluded, after his research, that reading aloud is both useful practically and intellectually (Ricquier 1879:631). The study of languages today at the University of Liège is still widely influenced by this method. Indeed, grammar is still ubiquitous. As for translations, they are still present for some languages, like German, but are starting to disappear from the English program. However, reading and reciting aloud are not part of the university's language program.

Another method, which was promoted in Belgium at the beginning of the twentieth century, is called the direct method or the inductive or natural method (Simons 2019: 3). According to the inventors of this method, learning a language should be pleasant, lively, varied, and mistakes should no longer be regarded as flaws, but rather as ways to learn (Puren 1988: 89). The direct method is based on the "natural model" for the acquisition of language,

which means that it is a direct, intuitive, oral, active, imitative, and receptive method (Puren 1988: 73-74). Students were asked to assimilate language unconsciously with guided repetitions (Puren 1988: 40). However, the natural acquisition model needed to be adapted in order to be efficient in the school system, because it was based on first language acquisition, whereas learning a second language during a few hours at school is different. Students do not hear the foreign language as much (Puren 1988: 76). At the beginning of the twentieth century, there were new needs for language teaching: it should be more practical, and lead to efficient communication (Puren 1988: 65). The indirect method did not meet these requirements, which is why a new method was needed (Puren 1988: 65). The direct method was the first didactic method to be imposed and entirely devoted to modern language teaching (and not to ancient language teaching). It was now felt that languages should be studied for their own sake, and not for prestige, literature, etc. (Puren 1988: 57). Nevertheless, Puren states that classic language teaching still influenced the direct method, and is responsible for its failure (Puren 1988: 36). According to Puren, educationalists from this period wanted to differentiate themselves too much from the indirect method, and this excessive longing for change impeded success, because of the reasons explained below. In order to be distinct from the grammar-translation method, the direct method was based on a triple principle: intuition, action, and oral transmission (Simons 2019: 4). Translations were not valued in this method, because it promoted a direct approach to language without using the native language. At first, translations were prohibited, but later they were used to check linguistic comprehension, that is, students' understanding of new subjects (Puren 1988: 82). To improve comprehension more efficiently, pictures started to be used (Puren 1988: 55). Literature was still valued in the direct method, but educationalists realized that natural learning did not work with literary texts. Indeed, instructors wanted students to understand every detail of literary works, which is why translations were used again to comprehend literature (Puren 1988: 84).

The emphasis in the direct method was on oral expression, and especially on everyday conversations, rather than on studying by heart (Puren 1988: 51). Accordingly, in 1895 an official circular confirmed that the study of foreign languages should be based on spoken and practical language (Simons 2019: 6). Students' active involvement in their own learning was valued in the direct method (Puren 1988: 66), and in order to promote teacher-student interaction, questions and answers were used. (Lah 2013: 202). This focus on orality was supplemented with an inductive approach to grammar, written compositions, vocabulary, analysis, reciting and reading, and explanations of texts (Puren 1988: 66). Teachers' training

was improved in order to promote better acquisition for students, and instructors started to realize the importance of their subject in the school system (Puren 1988: 68-69). The direct method aimed to promote new learning, and to develop new ideas, which is why it is described in opposition to the indirect method:

> Objectif pratique / objectifs culturel et formatif ; méthode active / passivité de l'élève ; facilitation de l'apprentissage et appel à la motivation de l'élève / exigence de l'effort et recours à l'obligation ; recours à l'intuition de l'élève / sollicitation de sa seule intelligence ; méthode directe / méthode indirecte ; grammaire inductive / grammaire déductive ; méthode orale / priorité à l'écrit ; contenus de la vie quotidienne / contenus littéraires ; textes suivis / phrases isolées ; priorité au travail en classe / priorité au travail en étude ; etc. (Puren 1988: 71)

According to Puren, this constant opposition between the indirect and the direct method led to abuse of the latter because educationalists in favor of the direct method wanted to differentiate themselves from the grammar-translation method too much, which means that they did not use the positive aspects of the older method (1988: 72). There was a shift from reading texts aloud by students in the indirect method to reciting what they had learned with the help of texts in the direct method. The direct method also promoted conversations about texts: "Le professeur, à un jour donné, exige que l'histoire étudiée et sue la semaine ou le mois précédents lui soit racontée ; il ne fait plus réciter, il fait parler" (Puren 1988: 54). After the indirect method, educationalists wanted to emphasize the practice of oral and conversational skills rather than forms of orality based on the exact replication of written works (Puren 1988: 52). Whereas the indirect method valued grammar, the direct method promoted oral language and learning without translations, orthography, and superfluous grammatical rules (Puren 1988: 63; 70).

Even though Puren does not explicitly mention reading aloud as a recommended process in the direct method, he states that reading should always lead to an oral process for students: it should lead to conversations, as mentioned above. Teachers were required to talk a lot and to ask their students to talk too (Puren 1988: 52). Reading was promoted, and continuous texts were now used as didactic material. According to Puren, reading in the direct method could be divided into three types: cursive reading, explicated reading, and "spontaneous" reading (Puren 1988: 100). Each will be explained in what follows. Each type of reading could be used in different phases of language acquisition. When students started to learn a foreign language, they read "closed books", which consisted mostly of simple and short texts, such as poems, that were meant to be recited. Later, students could deal with explicated reading, which means that they

did not only read to understand, but also to assimilate new elements from the text (Puren 1988: 110). After that, cursive reading could be exploited in order to prepare students for "spontaneous" reading. During the time of cursive reading, texts should be read aloud by the teacher or from one student to another. After that, every student reads the text again individually (Puren 1988: 100). The final stage of the reading progression proposed by the direct method was to read independently at home at the same time as practicing cursive and explicated reading at school (Puren 1988: 111). However, results show that the direct method could not lead students to master "spontaneous" reading; explicated reading is the type that allowed teachers to explain new linguistic, literary, as well as cultural items to students, which is why this type of reading persisted (Puren 1988: 112). Puren explains this practice to help his readers understand why it remained in use: explicated reading during the direct method period consisted of sentence-by-sentence reading aloud by the teacher, followed by the repetition of these sentences by students and an explanation by the instructor. Teachers' reading needed to be phonetically correct, and expressive to improve students' comprehension. After this first reading, students were asked to read the text paragraph by paragraph one more time and to give a commentary on the entire literary text (Puren 1988: 113-114). The goal of reading was for students to learn the new language without using their native language and, according to Adrien Godart, expressive reading was the most effective tool for students to acquire a new language (Godart, cited in Puren 1988: 114). Furthermore, teachers' voices were essential during this period, because audio cassette tapes, CDs, MP3, etc. did not exist at the beginning of the twentieth century, yet students still had to reproduce and read aloud. Educationalists at the time were aware that body language was essential to reading aloud efficiently because it contributed to expressive reading (Puren 1988: 102). Moreover, it was agreed that students should be active in their learning, which is why physical activity was sometimes used: students were asked to dramatize texts, and expressively read aloud with corporal movements (Puren 1988: 87).

The emphasis in language learning was to think in the target language, to live in this language, which is why the dramatization of pictures was recommended (Puren 1988: 88). However, the dramatization of dialogues was not promoted in this method, and even though some educationalists recommended it, it was not used automatically by teachers (Puren 1988: 208). In order to dramatize dialogues, students had to be prepared, and reading the dialogues aloud in advance could help them. This approach to the direct method including reading aloud was not required by any official directive but was only recommended by some methodologists, including Godart (Puren 1988: 86). Therefore, reading aloud was not used to teach

pronunciation, but the latter was taught through an analytical process: students first learned phonemes, then syllables, then words, then groups of words, etc. to acquire rhythm and intonation (Cuq and Gruca 2002, cited in Lah 2013: 202). Another type of reading aloud used in the direct method is dictation. Written texts were exclusively used to facilitate the acquisition of pronunciation, which is why dictations were promoted in this method. Teachers dictated texts in order to help students understand them without using their native language (Lah 2013: 202-203).

Even though the direct method is coherent didactically, educationalists had different points of view (Puren 1988: 116), and many teachers were already in favor of a more eclectic method (Puren 1988: 64). The eclectic method or active method (Simons 2019: 6) showed a desire to improve the direct method. Indeed, according to the supporters of this newer method, the direct method was too ambitious: a foreign language cannot be studied like a native language, as children do not hear the foreign language as much as their mother tongue. Furthermore, teachers were not trained efficiently in phonetics and hence could not help students to improve their own pronunciation (Puren 1988: 126). The teaching of ancient languages still played a role in the development of the eclectic method, even though the latter is not based on the instruction of Greek or Latin (Puren 1988: 36). The eclectic method did not entirely break from the direct method, because active teaching was already valued during this period (Puren 1988: 146). It promoted a teaching system that is said to be a mixture of the indirect and direct methods, where students were active in their learning (Puren 1988: 141). Indeed, according to the followers of the eclectic method, one cannot learn a foreign language in school just by hearing this new language: one needs to hear it more than a few hours per week and students do not always see the need to learn a foreign language. Therefore, the eclectic method promoted the use of the foreign language as well as the use of the native language, and grammar played a more important part in the eclectic method (Puren 1988: 122; Simons 2019: 8). The native language was used for grammar and vocabulary translations (Puren 1988: 163). Furthermore, the eclectic method promoted students' active participation, and an atmosphere that encouraged motivation and collaboration (Puren 1988: 147; 177). Language was studied analytically, which means that one learned parts of a language first (vocabulary, grammar, etc.) before studying the whole (texts, conversation, etc.) (Puren 1988: 163). Most teachers, at that time, approved of this method and one can posit that most instructors still use it today despite more recent methods. There could be several explanations for this, including the fact that the method used at the university is closer to the indirect method whereas the method promoted in

secondary schools today is closer to the direct method. With the eclectic method, teachers can link their own experience as university students with the way they have to teach (Simons 2019: 10). This phenomenon is well known by educationalists and is theorized. It is called the "law of isomorphism" and means that teachers reproduce their initial training in their own teaching (Puren 1988: 36). This phenomenon happens because the university program differs greatly from the prescribed teaching programs in the French community of Belgium and France. The difference between university and secondary school teaching programs started around 1870 and has lasted until today (Puren 1988: 37).

As for reading aloud, it could still be found in teachers' practice in the eclectic method: texts were read aloud by teachers, and then were used to teach new concepts. This exploitation of written works also marked a difference between the direct method and the eclectic method. Teachers and students discussed the texts, translated some passages, and learned new grammatical elements excerpted from the text (Puren 1988: 153). Even though texts remained at the center of the eclectic method and were also used to complete language teaching at the beginning of the learning process (Puren 1988: 167), the eclectic method did not only use literary texts, which is why reading aloud was less present than before. The twentieth century allowed teachers to use new technologies, and audiovisual material started to become common (images, radio, films, etc.). These tools started to be used more frequently after 1960 when the audiovisual method was promoted (Puren 1988: 155; 172).

In the audio-oral or audio-lingual method (Simons 2019: 11), priority was given to spoken language, just like in the direct method. However, the audio-oral method differed from the direct one in the sense that it was based on the imitation of a linguistic "pattern" (Simons 2019: 11). This method was based on behaviorist theory (stimulus – answer – reinforcement) (Puren 1988: 103; 202) and saw the use of the native language as a source of flaws in the acquisition of a foreign language. Pronunciation was essential, and both teachers and students had to talk as much as possible. Orthography should only play a part when students had learned the correct pronunciation, but according to Puren teachers still used orthography before the correct pronunciation was acquired. Nevertheless, the theory recommended for teachers to teach orality first (Puren 1988: 85-86). Whereas three objectives were essential to teaching languages in the eclectic method (cultural, formative, and practical), the audio-oral method only focused on practicality (Puren 1988: 158). Grammar was no longer explained, because students should adopt new habits through imitating linguistic models, not through explanations (Puren 1988: 208). Grammar and lexicon were presented using authentic examples in complete

sentences and students practiced through "pattern drills", that is, they repeated and imitated linguistic models, and then transformed sentences (Puren 1988: 199). Intensive oral repetitions were promoted in order to encourage memorization. This automaticity became the goal of classroom exercises, which gradually became more difficult over the course of the class. This is why language laboratories were particularly used for this method (Puren 1988: 201-202).

This method did not have a lot of success in Belgium (Simons 2019: 12), and even though structural exercises in the audio-oral method were more popular in France, French critics still stated that students should be more active in their learning (Puren 1988: 158; 209). Indeed, according to educationalists, learning a language is not only creating habits, but students need to understand and to be able to produce (Porquier 1977, cited in Puren 1988: 205). In the past, teachers read texts aloud to their students and the latter was allowed to follow the texts with their eyes, and thus read simultaneously. It was different in the audio-oral method, students could not read the texts that were read aloud to them. They had to listen and repeat what they had heard, not what they had read, which is not reading aloud (Puren 1988: 173). However, reading aloud *by teachers* was promoted: "the army method" influenced the audio-oral practice, and proposed that instructors should read aloud at the beginning of the learning process. For example, the assistant read around thirty questions aloud to ten students who merely listened and did not read the text at the same time. Reading aloud was meant to help students to understand, with intonation, gesture, and facial expression; the speed needed to be conversational. At first, students only listened and after two or three reading aloud sessions, they started to repeat in unison. The first stage of the learning process was exclusively oral, but after some time, students could read the text individually while repeating, which means that one can find a type of reading aloud in "the army method" (Puren 1988: 193). However, the audio-oral method did not promote this practice of reading aloud. Even though this method was influenced by "the army method", it only promoted reading aloud *by teachers* and did not make use of the idea to ask students to read aloud in a later stage of the learning process. The method emphasized the acquisition of new linguistic habits and educationalists did not state that reading aloud could improve this acquisition.

The audiovisual structural-global method (Simons 2019: 12) was more successful around 1960 even though the fundamental principle was the same as the audio-oral method. Indeed, the goal was also to create linguistic behaviors based on the imitation of models provided by native speakers (Simons 2019: 13). The principles of the audiovisual structure-global method could be summarized as follows: realistic situations were used to teach, the

native language could not be used, orality was the main focus, and analogies, as well as induction, allowed efficient learning (Puren 1988: 232). The audiovisual method was already used in North America when it arrived in Europe, and it systematically linked sounds and images, but the European audiovisual method was different from the American one (Puren 1988: 191-192). The visual elements were not only present to help students but they were an essential part of the learning process. Translations were indeed prohibited in the audiovisual method and pictures helped teachers to use the foreign language exclusively (Puren 1988: 214). Pronunciation and intonation were major elements in this method (Simons 2019: 15): orality was central in the audiovisual method (Puren 1988: 228), and pronunciation of sentences was the first element that needed to be learned by students, which is why they listened to dialogues without any transcripts at the beginning of learning. In doing so, educationalists in favor of the audiovisual method believed that students would assimilate the correct pronunciation of the words present in the dialogues (Puren 1988: 217).

The role of teachers in the audiovisual method was to explain concepts: when the images were not enough for students to understand, teachers could draw or explain in the target language, but reading aloud was not used to help students with their comprehension (Puren 1988: 219). The lack of grammatical explanations was later criticized (Puren 1988: 239), and this method did not take the reflexive and creative ability of students into consideration, but the positive side of the audiovisual method is the fact that the language used for repetition was authentic. Students were instructed to listen to dialogues, look at images, and watch films.Then they had to try to dialogue with a machine (Puren 1988: 216). Students had to repeat and dramatize dialogues but could not have the texts on which these were based, so the exercise did not involve reading aloud (Puren 1988: 221). Students had to be actors, and images were there to help them to understand the language, as well as dramatize it (Puren 1988: 212). With these exercises, students were meant to understand linguistic features intuitively, which is why explicit grammatical explanations were not promoted in the audiovisual method either (Puren 1988: 220). However, according to educationalists, behaviorist theories were not efficient for language teaching (Puren 1988: 240). Lah also emphasizes the link between orality and the lack of reading aloud: pronunciation was the main focus of this method, and written texts were only used after at least 60 hours of teaching, which is why reading aloud was not used. Students practiced pronunciation with oral exercises that consisted of repetitions of audio material (Lah 2013: 203).

The communicative approach (Simons 2019: 15) is not a method *per se* but rather an approach that started to be promoted at the end of the twentieth century and is still used today. It is based on the learners' needs and not on the methods through which foreign languages should be taught (Puren 1988: 255; Simons 2019: 17). After the audiovisual method, educationalists realized that language teaching should help students to acquire communication skills and that didactic methods should, therefore, be more closely adapted to the learners' needs (Puren 1988: 245; 247). The main goal is efficient communication. According to Puren, communication skills can be listed as follows: linguistic mastery, textual mastery, strategies mastery, and situation mastery (Puren 1988: 251). Language is seen as a tool that enables learners to use foreign language in real-life situations. Every activity promoted in the communicative approach should be as authentic as possible, like role-play, simulations, etc. and have communicative intentions (Germain 2001, cited in Lah 2013: 203). Teachers should help students to start with, and learners should progressively become more and more independent. Students are now seen as actors in the learning process. Some characteristics of the communicative approach are: the four skills (listening comprehension, reading comprehension, oral expression and written expression) and the methodological side of the communicative approach, called the functional-notional approach (Simons 2019: 19-20). The latter focuses on the functional side of the foreign language and does not require teaching explicit grammatical rules (Simons 2019: 23-24). Some people have criticized the approach for these reasons. As for reading aloud, it is considered to be a "non-communicative" activity, in the same way as structural exercises and repetition, which is why it is not promoted (Lah 2013: 203).

The actional perspective (Simons 2019: 24) is now recommended by the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*. In this model, the learners of a foreign language are considered to be social actors that have to fulfill a task in a specific social context (Simons 2019: 28). The concept of task performance is paramount and influences the way languages are taught in the French community of Belgium today (Simons 2019: 32). As reading aloud is not considered a task, it is no longer valued: "Les activités les plus mécaniques de conservation du sens (la répétition, la dictée, la lecture à haute voix, la transcription phonétique) sont actuellement décriées dans un enseignement orienté vers la communication parce qu'elles sont artificielles et ont des effets en retour considérés comme peu souhaitables" (*CECRL*: 80, cited in Lah 2013: 200). Reading aloud is considered to be a mechanical activity, and such activities are not promoted in the actional perspective.

The analysis of the methods used in language teaching since the end of the nineteenth century until today shows that reading aloud was used by students and teachers in the indirect method. Oral reading was part of this method but was not a vital component: grammar and translations were predominant. Later on, students were inconsistently asked to read aloud, but teachers still read aloud to provide comprehensible input. Nowadays, reading aloud is no longer promoted. There are not many studies that precisely circumscribe the role that reading aloud played in each method, but it was used in practice. The summary presented above demonstrates that expressive reading has been used in the past and that, nowadays, it is less valued. In conclusion, the change concerning reading aloud between the nineteenth century and today correlates with the change in focus regarding the goal of language learning. Reading aloud was used as a tool to improve language learning when the goal of teaching was based on cultural appreciation and linked with ancient language teaching in the indirect method. However, when the goal of teaching became to create linguistic behaviors, reading aloud was not seen as useful for students anymore. At that stage, it was only used by teachers to provide comprehensible input. Nowadays, communication is the main concern, and, in this perspective, reading aloud is not valued anymore. The next chapter will analyze theories on reading aloud that show its advantages and show that it should not only be associated with the indirect method but that it could also be helpful in modern language teaching.

3   Literature on reading aloud
    3.1   Introduction

Reading aloud was the norm in the past, but nowadays, a majority of teachers ask their students to read silently (Lösener 2019: 65). This fact raises questions. Indeed, reading aloud has advantages for students, as there is a link between pronunciation and comprehension. Wilhelm von Humboldt was the first to state this fact in 1835 and Lösener agrees with him, which is why he promotes reading aloud in teaching (Lösener 2019: 63-64). Lösener's article, which results from a conference paper entitled "Pourquoi tout comprendre c'est tout prononcer. La lecture à haute voix dans l'enseignement" (2019) analyzes this practice and tries to give answers on how it is used efficiently. As stated before, Lösener's insights on reading aloud have inspired this dissertation. Other specialists have also studied reading aloud and this chapter reviews many theories on this practice in first and second language teaching. This chapter is devoted to scholarly articles on reading aloud in order to understand the professional points of view on this matter. First, the theory on reading aloud models will be explained. Then, the advantages and

criticisms of this practice will be discussed. The role of reading aloud in the communicative approach, as well as in everyday life, will also be analyzed. Moreover, the importance of preparation, orality, and the major role of fluency for comprehension will be highlighted. The advantages of vocabulary acquisition and pronunciation will also be analyzed more precisely. Then, the role of semantics and oral reading testing will be explained. Finally, an examination of reading aloud will be developed based on the insights discussed throughout the chapter.

3.2   Lösener's insights on reading aloud

Lösener mentions why some instructors are reluctant to teach reading aloud: students can be afraid to read aloud in front of others, teachers do not always see the advantages of oral reading, and comprehension can be impeded when readers focus more on the way they read aloud than on the meaning of the text. According to Lösener, fear is the reason for this separation between performance when reading aloud and comprehension. Many people, including Jürgen Reichen, believe that it is the process of oral reading that impedes understanding, but Lösener insists on the fact that the reason for hindered comprehension is the stress induced by the class environment. Reading aloud or in a low voice can improve one's pronunciation: "l'articulation soutient la compréhension"; one can only understand what one is capable of pronouncing (Lösener 2019: 63).

Lösener then develops the concept of listening. It is important in any act of reading for one to listen to what is being read and to the inner voice of the text. Listening makes reading poetic and teaching methods should take this poetic dimension into consideration: "L'enseignement scolaire a intérêt à tenir compte de cette dimension poétique, si l'on veut former des lecteurs compétents pour qui lire signifie, non pas seulement extraire des bribes d'information du texte, mais suivre une pensée articulée et comprendre un point de vue, qui est développé dans un discours écrit" (Lösener 2019: 64). One of the reasons why reading aloud is not practiced for its poetic qualities is because of didactics and PISA, which put too much emphasis on reading to learn new information and not enough on reading to listen. In other words, students do not read for the pleasure of reading and to listening to a pleasant story, but to learn (Pennac 1992, cited in Lösener 2019: 64). The definition of reading given by PISA confirms this focus on new information; it does not mention the "vocal" and the poetic aspects of reading (Lösener 2019: 65). Nevertheless, Lösener insists on the importance of "vocal representations" while reading: one can hear intonation and voices when one reads, even silently. According to Lösener, this phenomenon is called "vocal articulation inside the text",

which means that there is a "physical voice" inside every text (Lösener 2019: 65). Even though this "physical voice" is present when reading both aloud and silently, it is easier to perceive while reading aloud. With the oral dramatization of the text, readers can more easily discover the inner voice of the work and interpret it (Lösener 2019: 67-68). Lösener thus emphasizes the importance of reading aloud in order to take the poetic aspects of reading into consideration and he proposes six didactic methods to practice reading aloud efficiently:

1. Reading aloud should not bring fear or stress, which means that students should be free to read aloud. Correction of mistakes during reading aloud should be private, and performance should not be graded right after the reading aloud session. Furthermore, students should take part in the discussions to choose the texts that are read aloud.

2. Reading aloud should be prepared and carried out in small groups of four readers.

3. The classroom layout should be modified for reading aloud sessions.

4. Every session of reading aloud should be put on a minimalist production (it can only be accessories for example).

5. Listeners should be implicated in the production with a small task. They should applaud before and after the performance.

6. The goal of reading aloud should always be: "read to listen". Moreover, the chosen texts should be polyphonic and allow them to play with voices (with dialogues for example). The goal should always be to highlight the vocal articulation of the text, that is read aloud. (Lösener 2019: 68)

According to Lösener, reading aloud should be practiced at any age and should promote self-confidence, as well as introduce students to literature, in addition to other types of written material (Lösener 2019: 68-69). The lack of reading aloud training in secondary schools leads to a deterioration of many students' skills in this subject throughout their schooling, which is why it should always be practiced (Lösener 2019: 63). Lösener's point of view on reading aloud opens up a lot of possibilities for language teaching in second language classrooms.

3.3   Theory on reading aloud
3.3.1   The input hypothesis

Stephen Krashen's develops the importance of reading in language acquisition in his monitor model. Even if he only briefly talks about reading aloud in his article, his argument will

nonetheless be analyzed in order to understand the role of reading in language acquisition. In his article, "We Acquire Vocabulary and Spelling by Reading: Additional Evidence for the Input Hypothesis" (1989), Krashen builds an argument to show that reading is useful to acquire a new language.

The Input Hypothesis, mentioned in the title of Krashen's article, is a concept developed as part of his monitor model in the early 1970s, a time when, as explained above, teaching methods were based on behaviorism. Krashen was not satisfied with these methods and decided to suggest his own model based on five hypotheses, including the Input Hypothesis. Patsy M. Lightbown and Nina Spada explain the concept concisely:

> The *input hypothesis* is that acquisition occurs when one is exposed to language that is comprehensible and that contains i + 1. The 'i' represents the level of language already acquired, and the '+ 1' is a metaphor for language (words, grammatical forms, aspects of pronunciation) that is just a step beyond that level. (Lightbown and Spada 2006: 37)

Krashen argues that in order to acquire a new language, students have to be exposed to comprehensible input: "Both first and second language acquisition results, in my opinion, support the view that comprehensible input is the major source of vocabulary and spelling competence" (Krashen 1989: 441). According to Krashen, comprehensible input is most efficient in the form of reading; it is helpful to learn spelling and vocabulary, even though several linguists do not agree with him (Krashen 1989: 440). He supports his argument with studies suggesting that people who write well are those who read more outside of school; these people also perform better in vocabulary tests (Krashen 1989: 441). Krashen's analysis of language acquisition thus demonstrates that comprehensible input in the form of reading improves learner's knowledge of vocabulary.

However, in his article, Krashen is discussing silent reading. He does not imply that reading *aloud* can have the same advantages. Indeed, he develops the idea of "Sustained Silent Reading", which is a time when learners read freely without any examination of their reading later on: "When Sustained Silent Reading supplements regular language arts instruction, it typically results in superior vocabulary development" (Krashen 1989: 442). Studies show that reading can improve vocabulary acquisition in one's native language. The Clockwork Orange Study by T. Saragi, I.S.P. Nation, and F. Meister (1978), cited in Krashen's article states that people who were asked to read a novel with unknown words acquired a large number of them only by reading the novel. They were focusing on the meaning but could nevertheless acquire

new vocabulary. Studies on second language acquisition have also demonstrated that learners can acquire new vocabulary by reading more (Krashen 1989: 446).

As mentioned above, Krashen focuses mostly on silent reading but he still devotes part of his research to reading aloud. He focuses on listeners and shows that reading aloud benefits them. According to Krashen, listening to stories can also improve the vocabulary of listeners (Krashen 1989: 442). For example, studies show that young children acquire new vocabulary when they listen to stories that contain new words. In one specific study that consisted of a variation of the Read and Test procedure, by Rebecca Eller, Christine Pappas, and Elga Brown (1988), a story was read to young children three times and then they were asked to explain it with their own words. This task showed that new vocabulary had been acquired only by listening to the story (Krashen 1989: 447). Krashen goes further and analyzes studies that are called "incidental read and test" and "intentional read and test". In the "incidental read and test", subjects do not know that they are being tested for spelling, which means that they tend to focus on meaning. Despite this, the results show that reading improves their spelling (Krashen 1989: 447). As for the "intentional read and test", the results show that when readers focus on linguistic form, they improve their vocabulary and spelling more efficiently than when they focus on meaning (Krashen 1989: 447-448). Krashen concludes that, in order to acquire vocabulary and spelling in a more efficient way, reading should be made more important in the process of language acquisition (Krashen 1989: 454).

3.3.2 The "Dual-Route model" and the "Parallel-Distributed-Processing Approaches"

Reading aloud is not a simple process: "According to cognitive scientists, simply reading a word aloud requires a number of different processes, connections, and so on, all of which are executed in a quarter of seconds" (Adams 1990, cited in Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 582). Even though some scientists believe that reading aloud is mechanical: "many researchers believe that skilled readers have two types of phonological recoding procedures [but] many researchers also argue that skilled readers generate phonological codes from print automatically" (Reynolds & Besner 2006: 1303), this process is not automatic. This conclusion is drawn by Michael Reynolds and Derek Besner, who conduct seven experiments in their article, "Reading Aloud Is Not Automatic: Processing Capacity Is Required to Generate a Phonological Code From Print" (2006): "The results of the present experiments are therefore inconsistent with the widespread claim that phonological recoding occurs automatically" (2006: 1318-1319). A similar claim

about the absence of automaticity is made by Shannon O'Malley, Michael G. Reynolds, Jennifer A. Stolz, and Derek Besner in the article, "Reading Aloud: Spelling–Sound Translation Uses Central Attention" (2008: 427). The divergent scholarly opinion about the automaticity of reading aloud shows that present-day linguists do not all agree on reading aloud theories. One of these theories is called the "Simple View" postulation, which is based on reading aloud and states that reading is the decoding of print to sound, as well as oral language skills. However, this is not a "processing model", which is why it is important to take processing models into consideration (Taylor et al. 2017: 827). The next paragraph summarizes the theories that are mostly used by linguists, focusing on two models accepted in the bulk of the literature analyzed for this research: the "Dual-Route model" and the "Parallel-Distributed-Processing Approaches" (Coltheart et al. 1993; Coltheart & Rastle 1994; Zorzi 2000; Zorzi et al. 1998).

In the dual-route model, readers can read known words aloud via the "lexical route": the word has an "entry in a mental dictionary" and the pronunciation of the word can be retrieved from its printed form with this entry. As for unknown regular words, they can be read aloud efficiently via "the nonlexical route" (Coltheart et al. 1993: 589). Semantics also plays a role, which is why there is a consensus on the existence of a third route, known as "the semantic route" (Zorzi et al. 1998: 1132). At the end of the process, the different routes share "a final processing stage": "the phonemic stage," in which pronunciation is generated (Coltheart & Rastle 1994: 1198). Reynolds and Besner conducted research on this model. They conclude that their data is consistent with the main postulates of the DRC model, namely that, in order to read aloud exception words correctly, the lexical pathway must dominate performance, and that in order to read aloud nonwords correctly, the nonlexical pathway should dominate performance. As for regular words, they can be read aloud when either the lexical or the nonlexical pathway dominates performance (Reynolds & Besner 2008: 58). As for the parallel-distributed-processing model, it is mostly used in more traditional discussions on reading aloud. This model is said to be a "single-route model" that does not have any lexical entries (Zorzi et al. 1998: 1131). The debate between linguists to decide which model is more accurate is still ongoing nowadays (White & Besner 2017: 749).

Many skills are required in order to be efficient in the task of reading aloud. Marie Bregeon lists some of them in the article, "En situation de passeur culturel, des élèves en grande difficulté scolaire s'approprient les compétences du lecteur à voix haute" (2007). According to Bregeon, there are four skills that are essential to reading aloud: in order to be efficient, one should be able to easily decipher the text, which means to see the correspondence between the

written text and the sounds; to master punctuation; to read with the appropriate tone of voice; and to improve comprehension and interpretation (Bregeon 2007: 272). Bregeon also states that it is important to consider the different functions of the text while reading aloud: phonatory (articulation, voice intensity, delivery control), linguistic (not deciphering word by word but keeping the melody of the sentences), discursive (marking the storyline with rhythm) and expressive (dramatization, plural voices) features should be present when students read aloud in order to improve their abilities at school (Bregeon 2007: 279).

3.4   Advantages of reading aloud
3.4.1   Advantages based on brain activity analysis

Reading has often been considered as only a cognitive process, but studies have shown that it involves affective factors too (Lafontaine & De Serres 2007: 93). The advantages of reading aloud in the native language are well known but the benefits of this process in second language learning are still controversial. The analysis of the brain activity during reading aloud will be explained and the results demonstrate that oral reading is beneficial for second language students. Other articles analyzed explained the most substantial benefits of reading aloud; the advantages can be linguistic as well as social. Criticisms of reading aloud will also be reviewed in order to understand the different scholarly points of view on the matter.

In "Reading Aloud Activity in L2 and Cerebral Activation" (2012), Osamu Takeuchi, Maiko Ikeda, and Atsushi Mizumoto analyze brain activity during reading aloud in a foreign language. They conclude that "cerebral activation" is higher when one reads aloud in a foreign language than when one reads aloud in one's first language, and when the text that is read aloud by students is too difficult for them, "brain activation" is lower. The repetition of a normal activity level for reading aloud does not change the level of brain activity, but the repetition of a "cognitively demanding reading aloud activity does cause high brain activation" (Takeuchi et al. 2012: 151). Takeuchi et al. therefore deplore that reading aloud is now considered "obsolete" for second language learning (Takeuchi et al. 2012: 152). Nevertheless, reading aloud is still widely used for second language acquisition and favored by students in Asia in order to acquire new vocabulary (Takeuchi et al. 2012: 152). Takeuchi et al. go on to mention that studies on reading aloud have shown that this technique is useful and deserves more attention in second language classrooms. They summarize the main benefits as follows:

Some articles have investigated the reasons behind the effectiveness of RA in language learning and have obtained the following results. RA [reading aloud] can:

(a) Enhance reading skills by reinforcing graphemic-phonemic correspondences (Stanovich, 1991 cited in Gibson, 2008).

(b) Build automaticity in the lower-level processes of reading, such as word recognition, and increase reading rates (Kadota, 2007; Taguchi et al., 2006).

(c) Facilitate the acquisition of the prosodic features of English (Gibson, 2008).

(d) Help in the memorization of new information such as vocabulary by activating the working memory (Kadota, 2007).

(e) Raise language awareness (Lyster, et al., 2009).

(f) Help in the development of other skills (Gabrielatos, 2002; Gibson, 2008).

(g) Reduce speaking anxiety and improve the classroom atmosphere (Gánem- Gutiérrez, 2009; Gibson, 2008; Huang, 2010). (Takeuchi et al.2012: 152-153)

On the basis of these widely demonstrated advantages, Takeuchi et al. state that reading aloud should be reinserted in second language teaching methods (Takeuchi et al. 2012: 153).

3.4.2   Linguistic advantages

Takeuchi et al. list the main benefits of reading aloud in different fields. The next section focuses on numerous linguistic advantages. The positive effects of reading based on writing are not as well-known as the ones from writing based on reading. Farzin Gazerani's article, "Fondements théoriques et empiriques de l'articulation lecture-écriture en langue maternelle et en langue seconde" (2014) analyzes the link between reading and writing and states, just as Krashen did, that reading improves writing in one's native language (Gazerani 2014: 25). According to Gazerani, first language acquisition methods do not frequently take this relationship into consideration and language acquisition could be improved if methodologies put both reading and writing at the same level (Gazerani 2014: 23). Both can be part of the same learning process and be a repetition of new material, which helps students to assimilate new items. In order to be efficient, these links need to be made explicit for learners (Gazerani 2014: 28). Kyung Cho and Dong Seop Choi agree with Gazerani and expand on second language learning in their article, "Are Read-Alouds and Free Reading 'Natural Partners'? An Experimental Study" (2008). They state that the benefits of reading aloud have been demonstrated by scholarly articles, including Warwick B. Elley's and Stephen Krashen's.

Reading aloud improves children's literacy, as well as second language acquisition (Cho & Choi 2008: 69).

According to some research, reading aloud is linked with silent reading and reading aloud is a good way to encourage children to read (Cho & Choi 2008: 69). Cho and Choi wanted to test whether these hypotheses are accurate for second language acquisition and the results show that reading aloud mixed with silent reading is indeed effective to improve second language learners' motivation for reading, as well as their development in the foreign language. They conducted their research with sixth-grade students in Korea who were learning English as a second language. Stories were read aloud to half of the children for ten to fifteen minutes of every class hour. After twenty-one weeks, Cho and Choi compared these students' performance in English with the performance of children who did not take part in the experiment (Cho & Choi 2008: 69-70). Their conclusions attest that reading aloud, as well as free reading, are effective for second language teaching (Cho & Choi 2008: 72). They also state that listening to stories and reading is sufficient in improving one's second language learning and that students who practice reading aloud become more interested and confident in reading (Cho & Choi 2008: 73). Richard Allington (2005), cited in Gazerani (2014), also discusses reading aloud and states that it is beneficial for students. According to him, to ensure that students improve their writing and reading skills, they should all listen to each learner reading aloud in the classroom (Gazerani 2014: 33-34). In his article, Gazerani suggests ways to improve the teaching of reading and writing by having it followed by interaction, with questions about the text for example. He does not suggest that reading should be *aloud*, but he says that in order to write properly, one needs to say out loud what one wants to write (Gazerani 2014: 33). Gazerani shows that orality is important to acquire writing skills even though he does not expand on this matter.

It is now clear that listening to stories and reading aloud are useful in order to familiarize young children with reading and to improve their literacy skills later on. Furthermore, teachers can identify the readers' struggles when the latter read aloud (Warner et al. 2016: 223). Some theories, including Alan Frager's, state that oral reading listeners are passive. He expresses his opinion in the article, "Enter the Villain: Against Oral Reading in Secondary Schools" (2010) in which he states that reading aloud should not be used in secondary schools. Yet theories on reading aloud as therapy contradict Frager, suggesting that listening is cognitively demanding too (Rose and Dalton 2007, cited in Warner et al. 2016: 225). According to Lionel Warner, Caroline Crolla, Andy Goodwyn, Eileen Hyder and Brian Richards in their article, "Reading

Aloud in High Schools: Students and Teachers Across the Curriculum" (2016), many people enjoy being read to regardless of their ages and listening to stories is not a passive process (Warner et al. 2016: 224). Warner et al. assert that foreign language teachers agree with their theory, instructors feel that they play a part in their students' learning and that even though the communicative approach does not focus on reading aloud, it has positive effects on students. For example, reading aloud is useful to correct written works (Warner et al. 2016: 234-235). As for using reading aloud in the classroom, when students do not know who is going to read aloud, they listen to others more carefully. Admittedly, this technique may cause more anxiety, but preparation can reduce stress (Warner et al. 2016: 235). Gibson had already highlighted the importance of preparation: speaking in a foreign language can be stressful for students and reading aloud can reduce stress, provided that it is prepared (Gibson 2008: 32).

Sally Gibson also states that reading aloud is beneficial. She studies reading aloud in the article "Reading Aloud: A Useful Learning Tool?" (2008), in which she lists the negative and positive sides of reading aloud. She wants to understand the advantages and drawbacks in order to evaluate thoroughly the effectiveness of reading aloud. For her, the positive effects of reading aloud can be stated as follows:

> It [reading aloud] can help reading by reinforcing graphemic-phonemic correspondences. It can aid the acquisition of prosodic features of English and help to develop writing skills by using it as oral proofreading. RA can also be used as a technique for autonomous learning and may help some anxious students to feel more able to speak. (Gibson 2008: 29)

Gibson adds that foreign language learners who are better at reading are also better at listening comprehension. Strategies are needed to read accurately. These can be natural strategies in one's first language but not in the foreign language. Therefore, according to Gibson, these strategies need to be practiced in order to read fluently. Reading aloud can be a helpful tool to learn reading strategies: it helps the readers to make connections between graphemes and phonemes whereas readers might skip the connections in silent reading. Reading aloud allows the students to receive feedback on the connections they make (Gibson 2008: 31). Feedback is necessary in order to improve and teachers should be able to identify some linguistic features to provide effective feedback; the intonation of the student who is reading aloud can help the teacher comprehend whether the reader has understood the text (Gibson 2008: 31-32). Reading aloud also improves the students' pronunciation (Gibson 2008: 31). As for reading aloud practice, it can be used outside the classroom too: for example, in a language laboratory or alone

at home. Some learners even prefer reading aloud "to practice intonation and get the sound and flow of the language, especially in the beginning stages of learning" (Gibson 2008: 32). Gibson is aware that the advantages can also be found in other types of language learning methods: "Therefore, perhaps RA is not essential, but some learning outcomes might be more difficult to achieve by avoiding its use" (Gibson 2008: 34). Reading aloud remains a technique that has numerous benefits mentioned above, which is why it should be used more often in foreign language acquisition.

Gibson's point of view is based on the comparison of advantages and drawbacks of reading aloud. Douglas Fisher, James Flood, Diane Lapp and Nancy Frey are less ambivalent and state that most people know about the benefits of reading aloud. Their article, "Interactive Read-Alouds: Is There a Common Set of Implementation Practices?" (2004) starts with the sentence: "As every teacher knows, the benefits of read alouds are numerous" (Fisher et al. 2004: 8). It states that teachers know that reading aloud is beneficial for students regardless of their age, but this needs to be questioned. Some teachers do not see the positive sides of reading aloud nowadays even though it has many advantages such as the improvement of knowledge in a specific field (Fisher et al. 2004: 8). Chapter 5 will show that some Belgian teachers do not use reading aloud. The assumption expressed above by Fisher et al. thus needs to be moderated. According to Fisher et al., reading aloud is necessary to improve the listeners' literary and listening skills (2004: 8). In order to display the advantages of reading aloud, Fisher et al. observed teachers who are considered "experts" in teaching reading aloud to understand which methods are most efficient to teach this skill. They concluded that seven characteristics are necessary to efficient reading aloud teaching:

> (1) Books chosen were appropriate to students' interests and matched to their developmental, emotional, and social levels. (2) Selections had been previewed and practiced by the teacher. (3) A clear purpose for the read-aloud was established. (4) Teachers modeled fluent oral reading when they read the text. (5) Teachers were animated and used expression. (6) Teachers stopped periodically and thoughtfully questioned the students to focus them on specifics of the text. (7) Connections were made to independent reading and writing. (Fisher et al. 2004: 9-10)

Fischer et al. later observed more novice teachers and discovered that the majority of those are not trained to read aloud, which means that they did not provide a fluent reading for the listeners and did not exploit the text enough with "literacy activities" (Fisher et al. 2004: 15). This lack of activities around reading aloud sessions, such as questions for example, does not allow

students to fully grasp the goal of reading aloud, which means that they do not learn "comprehension strategies" and are less able to acquire new vocabulary (Fisher et al. 2004: 15). Teachers should also focus on enjoyment because reading should be a pleasure for the students so that they will want to read more (Fisher et al. 2004: 15).

3.4.3 Extralinguistic advantages

Social skills

As for extralinguistic advantages, reading aloud offers great possibilities for students to improve their cultural knowledge as well as their social skills. Marie Bregeon analyzes the cultural and social advantages of reading aloud for struggling students in her article entitled, "En situation de passeur culturel, des élèves en grande difficulté scolaire s'approprient les compétences du lecteur à voix haute" (2007). The goal is for struggling students to become "passeur[s] culturel[s]", which means that they read aloud to younger students (Bregeon 2007: 271-272). They prepare the oral reading sessions together and read aloud to kindergarten children. They later watch videos of themselves reading aloud in order to identify the elements that still need to be improved. Reading aloud, especially with young children, requires the reader to be expressive, which explains why this practice has positive effects on the students' intonation, and this on their reading aloud skills (Bregeon 2007: 274). The conclusions of Bregeon's research are clear: reading aloud is essential in order to become a better reader. She states: "Pour progresser en lecture, lire à voix haute est essentiel. Les adolescents en témoignent : Quand on lit un livre à voix haute, ça enrichit notre lecture, plus que quand on lit à voix basse" (Bregeon 2007: 282). The development is different for each student but the results of Bregeon's research show that all students evolved in the following aspects of reading: they can link written language with sound and hence understand better what they are reading, and they master punctuation and intonation better and can link the latter with the meaning of the text (Bregeon 2007: 282-283). Even though the teaching method analyzed by Bregeon has many advantages, some difficulties remain: the low level of the students, the personal work and meticulousness involved in setting up such activities (Bregeon 2007: 283). What helps students the most to become better readers is the analysis of their practice and the fact that the research takes emotion into consideration (Bregeon 2007: 283).

Sonia Dheur also highlights the collective side of reading aloud in her article, "La lecture à voix haute : entre écriture et oralité, une autorité en jeu" (2017). She talks about public readings of written works, for example in bookshops, and emphasizes the fact that reading aloud

is not an individual process but that groups of people come to listen to one person who is reading aloud (Dheur 2017: 130). She analyzes the cultural aspects of reading aloud and states that it is a form of liberty (Dheur 2017: 133). Another side of reading developed in this article is the concept of "sharing". Dheur defines sharing related to reading aloud as follows: "Prendre part à quelque chose avec d'autres, s'associer en pensée ou en sentiment, communiquer, percevoir ou ressentir en commun" (Dheur 2017: 136). Moreover, reading aloud offers the possibility for readers to develop their critical mind (Dheur 2017: 134). This aspect of reading aloud is important for students. Reading aloud can help students to practice their reading and social skills.

Gloria Tost also believes in the importance and advantages of the social side of reading aloud. She states in her article, "Bettering Pronunciation through Reading Aloud and Peer Appraisal" (2013) that "peer appraisal" during repeated reading aloud sessions is helpful to improve the reader's reading clarity, fluency and pronunciation in the foreign language (Tost 2013: 35). Many theories highlight the importance of working together in order to improve one's skills in a foreign language because social interaction is important to provide an efficient learning environment (see Lev Vigotsky 1962; 2003). Working with partners offers many other advantages, such as the solutions to problems, correction feedback, support, etc. (Tost 2013: 37). The repeated aspect of reading aloud with partners is also beneficial for learners, according to Tost, it improves fluency and pronunciation (Tost 2013: 37). Reading aloud in small groups demands clarity, pauses, expressivity, etc. whereas silent reading does not require these kinds of oral features (Tost 2013: 39). Tost puts her theory into practice and proposes methods that can be used in the classroom and that will be analyzed in the chapter on classroom practice.

Poeticism

Pierre Antoine Villemaine's article, "Sur la lecture à haute voix" (2005) does not provide any scholarly insight on reading aloud but describes this process as a poetic one. It describes the reader as someone who does not reflect on him- or herself but rather as someone who pays attention to their environment (Villemaine 2005: 119). The act of reading aloud is emotional, it is not simply a rendering of words. It conveys a message and different feelings. Eric Benoit also emphasizes the poetic side of reading aloud in "Lecture à voix haute ou lecture à voix mentale ?" (2016). According to him, reading aloud is the best way to perceive poeticism which is present in any text. In other words, the vocalization of literary works with intonation, expressivity, etc. allows readers to perceive poeticism (Benoit 2016: 18).

3.5   Criticism of reading aloud

Reading aloud is seen as essential in first language acquisition: kindergarten teachers read aloud to their students, who later learn how to read with reading aloud methods. However, reading aloud is not as popular in second language acquisition. Liangguang Huang interviews teachers for the article "Reading Aloud in the Foreign Language Teaching" (2010) and the results show that most of them have a negative perception of reading aloud. They see it as a process that takes up too much time which only allows one student to practice while others are passive. feel embarrassed when they have to read aloud, they cannot do it unprepared and they do not see the benefits of reading aloud in a communicative approach (Huang 2010: 148). Gibson also analyzes criticisms directed towards reading aloud in the aforementioned article "Reading Aloud: A Useful Learning Tool?" (2008). Some negative effects of reading aloud mentioned by teachers are that it is time-consuming, boring, and can create anxiety for readers. Furthermore, some believe that the benefits, especially for the listeners, are not important enough to devote time to oral reading (Gibson 2008: 29). Some teachers believe that one student who is reading aloud concentrates too much on decoding the words and sentences properly that he or she does not understand what they are reading, and that it slows down reading speed, which makes it hard for the listener to understand as well (Gibson 2008: 30). Reading aloud is not often seen as a skill that students need in their everyday lives (Gibson 2008: 30), even though the studies discussed below show that adults actually read aloud more than one might think. One can here notice that the drawbacks expressed by some teachers are the counterparts of some advantages described above. For example, some instructors believe that reading aloud is "boring" and creates anxiety, whereas others state that students are motivated by this practice and that it is less stressful than oral interaction. Different points of view on reading aloud show why this practice needs to be studied thoroughly and why a questionnaire that aims to understand Belgian teachers' points of view was created for this dissertation.

The negative aspects listed above are directed towards reading aloud for people who already know how to read. Indeed, reading aloud in the early stages of learning is acknowledged as beneficial but studies on reading aloud for older students are not as positive. Warner et al. investigate this matter in, "Reading Aloud in High Schools: Students and Teachers Across the Curriculum" (2016) and state that reading aloud to young children is useful to improve their reading skills and literacy but that there are not many studies on reading aloud for teenagers and young adults. However, reading aloud is still used in high schools, despite teachers' lack

of training, when a student has to read instructions for example, and Warner et al. want to understand this use for teachers and students (Warner et al. 2016: 222-223). Some criticism directed towards reading aloud is that this process does not leave as much freedom to the readers as silent reading does. For example, one can reread a text silently when one did not understand its meaning but when one reads aloud to an audience, one cannot reread a second time. Moreover, according to Frager, understanding a text relies on the link between the ideas of the text and the "inner thoughts" of the reader and reading aloud does not allow a connection between these (Frager 2010, cited in Warner et al. 2016: 223). The research conducted by Warner et al. confirms the findings of Huang and Gibson on teachers' perception of reading aloud.

Anxiety

Scholarly articles agree on the fact that anxiety is a negative aspect of any oral process of second language learning, but theories explained above do not agree on the role of stress in reading aloud. Some state that this practice reduces anxiety, while others describe the opposite effect. In their article, "Élaboration et validation d'échelles d'attitudes envers la lecture en français langue première, de motivation et d'anxiété envers la lecture en anglais langue seconde" (2007), Marc Lafontaine and Linda De Serres analyze the affective side of reading. Anxiety is linked with reading in the sense that one might be afraid to explain what one has just read. Lafontaine and De Serres do not expand on the anxiety that reading aloud can generate but stress can always play a part when it comes to expressing oneself in front of other people. A study conducted by Yoshiko Saito, Elaine K. Horwitz and Thomas J. Garza (1999) cited in Lafontaine and De Serres (2007) states the following: "I don't mind reading to myself, but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to read aloud" (Lafontaine & De Serres 2007: 96). This quotation shows that, according to some students, reading aloud can cause anxiety to the person that reads aloud in front of other people.

3.6   Reading aloud in the communicative approach

Criticisms mentioned above explain why some teachers do not see the utility of reading aloud in the communicative approach adopted today in the teaching of foreign languages (Huang 2010: 148). Chapter 4 will investigate whether reading aloud is present in the legal documents used in Belgium nowadays. Before this examination, this paragraph will show that theorists believe that reading aloud can be used in the communicative approach: this practice can be the first step towards efficient communication. According to Huang in the article, "Reading Aloud

in the Foreign Language Teaching" (2010), it is important in order to learn English, as well as other subjects. He states that reading comes after speaking in first language acquisition but when it comes to second language acquisition for learners who already know how to read, it is different, which means that it is interesting for language students to learn how to read aloud first in order to acquire communication skills in the second language (Huang 2010: 148). According to Huang, there are five main advantages of reading aloud in foreign language classes which are useful for the communicative approach. All of these can help students to improve their communication skills. The advantages are: the practice of pronunciation, the improvement of oral English, the deepening of text understanding, the strengthening of knowledge and the improvement of the classroom atmosphere (Huang 2010: 149). Huang's theory suggests that reading aloud can be the first step towards efficient communication. Weronika Wilczyńska agrees with Huang in her article on the enunciative approach, "«Approche énonciative» et didactique des langues" (2005). She also believes that reading aloud is useful in enhancing communication, the expressivity brought by reading aloud makes communication more efficient.

In light of the advantages demonstrated above, Lah wonders whether reading aloud should be introduced in official programs. She explains her theory in, "La lecture à haute voix en classe de langue étrangère – une activité à réhabiliter ?" (2013). She states that efficient reading aloud programs should include two phases: readers should first read silently, then aloud in order to benefit from oral reading (Lah 2013: 201). She highlights that reading aloud should be used in addition to silent reading, because she says that the latter is not sufficient for efficient learning. As demonstrated in chapter 2, Lah realizes that reading aloud is not only neglected in the communicative approach but has never been present in French as a second language program (Lah 2013: 204). Nevertheless, Lah believes that reading aloud should be introduced in the communicative approach because of its advantages, especially to improve students' pronunciation (Lah 2013: 204-205).

3.7   Purpose of reading aloud in everyday life

The prototypical idea of reading nowadays is associated with silent reading but it has not always been like that. According to Sam Duncan in the article, "Reading Aloud in Lewisham: An Exploration of Adult Reading-aloud Practices" (2015), historians do not agree on the date when the shift between reading aloud as the norm shifted to silent reading, but they all accept that there has been a change in the dominant conception of reading in the minds of most of the

world's population (Duncan 2015: 84). One might, therefore, think that most people read silently nowadays, but Duncan interviewed many adults and discovered that a lot of people read aloud in their everyday lives (Duncan 2015: 84). Duncan states that most of the research on reading aloud focuses on it as a "tool" to improve one's language development. Duncan wants to focus his research on reading aloud for its own sake and not on the utilitarian aspect of this practice. He wants to understand the purposes and pleasures of reading aloud practices for adults (Duncan 2015: 85). Adults read aloud in many different situations: in the process of learning, and also for religious purposes, during family time (reading to young children, speeches at weddings or funerals for example), at work, at conferences, without noticing (reading an email aloud to a colleague for example) (Duncan 2015: 86-88). The purposes for reading aloud expressed by adults are: to memorize a text, to understand a difficult text, as part of a writing process and to feel a sense of belonging to a group (Duncan 2015: 88-89), "as well as to communicate, share or inspire" (Duncan 2018: 421).

Duncan's article, "Lend Me Your Ears: Mass Observing Contemporary Adult Reading Aloud Practices" (2018) analyzes more precisely why people do not conceive of reading aloud as the norm. He concludes, based on the analysis of the Mass Observation Project conducted by *Reading Aloud in Britain Today* (Duncan 2018: 411) that adults' reading aloud practices are "invisible" (Duncan 2018: 421): the majority of people do not conceive of reading aloud as a common practice for adults. Furthermore, literacy habits differ from one individual to the other and it is hard to generalize common practices. Duncan's observations only concern a sample of adults that took part in the research, but he concludes that these statements about reading aloud actually involve a majority of British readers.

One of the often-cited reasons to read aloud in one's daily life, is to read aloud to children. Kit Lawson highlights the importance of this practice in the article, "The Real Power of Parental Reading Aloud: Exploring the Affective and Attentional Dimensions" (2012). Parents who read a lot to their children increase their chances of being successful in reading, language development, and literacy (Lawson 2012: 257). Lawson points out that emotions are important in order to learn, which is also the case in second language learning. Children are more motivated and able to learn new subjects when the new material generates positive emotions (Lawson 2012: 258). In reading aloud, the emotions present in speech are best conveyed by prosody (Lawson 2012: 259), an "exaggerated intonation creates an affective connection between parent and child" (de Villiers & de Villiers 1979, cited in Lawson 2012: 263). Even though Lawson's insights on the purpose of reading aloud are useful in order to

understand the major role of emotions in this process, he does not believe that oral reading benefits older listeners: "A child may take great pleasure from the social interaction of being read to and from the conversations that go on during readings, but reading ultimately becomes a mainly solitary activity. The language of the written text needs to be internalized in order to be understood" (Lawson 2012: 260). According to Lawson, when one knows how to read by oneself, one should read silently alone. He praises reading aloud for young children to improve their future literacy but does not consider reading aloud as a process to learn new skills or another language further in the development. In this sense, he contradicts many theories explained above and does not believe that reading aloud should be promoted in language teaching. His point of view can be questioned by the purpose of reading aloud in everyday life explained by Duncan, as well as the reading aloud sessions that take place in bookshops for example.

3.8   Preparation

Even though Duncan presents reading aloud as natural in English for native speakers, preparation should always be taken into account when it comes to reading aloud in a foreign language. One cannot expressively read in front of other people without being ready (Villemaine 2005: 124). Dheur states that it is important to prepare and annotate the texts that are going to be read aloud. One needs to add intonation, expressivity, etc. while reading aloud and this requires practice. Readers should also work on the way they stand while reading aloud (Dheur 2017: 136). The body is really important during the process of reading aloud and this should also be taught; the body should not move while reading aloud but it should nevertheless send signals, with the eyes for example (Dheur 2017: 144). Students do not know how to stand if no one has ever told them what the proper position for reading aloud is. Preparation also means choosing the text. This choice is really important; it should be authentic and within the students' reach (Huang 2010: 149). The text also needs to have a purpose for students and hence motivate them. Teachers should know how to guide them in their reading aloud so that they can fully benefit from it (Huang 2010: 150).

3.9   Orality in reading

As explained above, Lawson believes that reading aloud does not benefit adults. However, he signals that silent reading is in truth not silent. Even though he considers silent reading as the most effective form of reading for older readers, he admits that silent reading is not silent:

Beggs and Howarth (1985) suggested that inner speech accompanies the learned skill of reading aloud with expression. Children who read aloud with expressive prosody have described hearing, during silent reading, not only the distinctive voices of the characters but also the emotions that the voices express (Corra, 2006), which suggests that 'silent reading' is not silent at all; it involves auditory perception as well as visual perception. Furthermore, they have described the subjective experience as being pleasurable (Corra, 2006). Understanding how children first establish an 'ear' for the written language may help to explain how they develop the inner speech that not only serves to extract meaning from the words and from the prosodic features that are conveyed by markers in the form of punctuation, but also creates the pleasurable 'voice inside the head'. (Lawson 2012: 261)

With this quotation, one can see that the features of reading aloud, such as oral voices, intonations, etc. play a part in silent reading too. Lawson also highlights that reading aloud is neither innate nor easy for parents, which suggests that reading aloud needs to be learned at some point (Lawson 2012: 264). Warner et al. agree with Lawson on the fact that even during silent reading, one has a little voice in one's head (Pinker 2014, cited in Warner et al. 2016: 224). Benoit distinguishes between "reading aloud" and "mental reading"; he understands reading aloud as a public event whereas mental reading is individual (Benoit 2016: 19-20). Nevertheless, he acknowledges that both processes consider orality, even though mental reading is not vocal: "L'effet sonore n'a plus besoin du son réel pour se réaliser" (Benoit 2016: 20-22).

As suggested by the theories above, orality is present in both reading aloud and silent reading. Therefore, Melanie R. Kuhn and Steven A. Stahl analyze two reading processes, one process of reading aloud and one silent process: "guided oral reading" and "independent silent reading". They want to understand which process is more effective in order to become an efficient reader:

They [the National Reading Panel (NRP; 2000)] defined guided oral reading as approaches that involve having the student read with guidance and feedback. Included in this definition were common approaches such as repeated reading, impress reading,[2] paired reading, shared reading, and assisted reading. Independent silent reading

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[2] "The Neurological Impress Method involves the teacher and the student reading aloud simultaneously from the same book. The teacher reads slightly faster than the student to keep the reading fluent. The teacher usually sits next to the student and focuses his or her voice near the ear of the student." (Flood et al. 2005)

involved providing time for children to read by themselves, such as sustained silent reading, drop everything and read, and so on. (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 6)

Kuhn and Stahl analyzed fourteen studies from the "National Reading Panel (NRP)" on "independent silent reading" and they concluded, despite Krashen's criticism, that "the 14 studies on the effectiveness of independent silent reading did not provide conclusive evidence that the approach improved reading achievement" (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 6). However, the NRP did not consider some important research in their studies, which is one reason for Krashen's criticism. Nevertheless, Kuhn and Stahl emphasize the fact that practicing to read, even silently, improves reading skills. As for reading aloud, the NRP reviewed many different methods and concluded that reading aloud was useful in order to become an efficient reader. However, since many different methods were taken into account, it is not possible to draw more precise conclusions on each method (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 6). The conclusion remains broad in the sense that it demonstrates that reading aloud as a whole is efficient. It cannot state which method works best in specific cases, but both methods that rely on assisted and on unassisted reading, as well as reading segmented texts are efficient to improve students' reading speed, accuracy, and comprehension (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 18).

3.10 Orality in the native and foreign languages (bilingualism)

"Le rôle de la conscience phonologique dans l'apprentissage de la lecture en français langue seconde par les enfants arabophones : comparaison entre lecteurs normaux et dyslexiques" (2018), by Smail Layes, Kamel Layes, and Khenfour Hichem also focuses on orality present in reading. They analyze the role of the "phonologic conscience" in the reading skills of students with and without dyslexia, who study French as a second language. The phonologic conscience plays a major role in the process of reading in different languages and it can be transferred from one language to another. With this observation, linguists can predict the reading skills of learners in their second language based on their phonologic conscience from their native language (Layes et al. 2018: 23). Robert T. Jiménez, Georgia Earnest García, and P. David Pearson also show that first and second language readings skills are linked. They state in their article "The Reading Strategies of Bilingual Latina/o Students Who Are Successful English Readers: Opportunities and Obstacles" (1996) that bilingualism is helpful to improve literacy development (Jiménez et al. 1996: 90). They demonstrate their hypothesis with a complete study of bilingual students in the United States and they conclude that the best readers describe

reading in both languages as the same process and use strategies in both languages but more in English (Jiménez et al. 1996: 100-102).

The advantages of reading aloud for bilingual second-language readers are also demonstrated in, "Read-Alouds in Calca, Peru: A Bilingual Indigenous Context" (2009) by Sabina Rakand Neugebauer and Rachel Currie-Rubin. They present their thesis right away: "Read-alouds can enhance the literacy skills of second-language learners" (Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin 2009: 396). According to studies on vocabulary acquisition, reading aloud can help bilingual students to learn new words. Learners who passively listen to a book that is read aloud will acquire new vocabulary. In order to improve vocabulary acquisition, listeners can be actively implicated in the reading process, with questions that include new vocabulary, for example. When the teacher explains the new words while reading aloud, the acquisition is also improved (Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin 2009: 404). In addition to vocabulary acquisition, reading aloud can also improve comprehension:

> In addition to aiding vocabulary acquisition, readalouds can increase comprehension skills by providing opportunities for students to use abstract thinking, to make predictions, and to understand story structure and organization—all of which augment literacy skills (Adams, 1990)—and in turn, these comprehension skills can help build vocabulary" (Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin 2009: 396).

This quotation shows that reading aloud can help bilingual listeners to acquire new vocabulary but it is also helpful for their comprehension skills (Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin 2009: 397). Studies based on students learning English as a second language demonstrate that reading aloud pedagogy is particularly efficient in second language learning (Neugebauer & Currie-Rubin 2009: 397). However, students who already have better vocabulary knowledge are more likely to acquire more new words while reading aloud than learners who have weaker vocabularies (Neugebauer & Currie- Rubin 2009: 402).

In the article, "The Effect of Story Read-alouds on Children's Foreign Language Development" (2014), Catalina Norato Cerón develops the idea of "Reading Corner", that will be explained in the chapter on classroom practice. Norato Cerón proposes reading aloud sessions in both the native and the foreign language and relies on constructivist and cognitive theories. Krashen's "input hypothesis", that states that an input + 1 is necessary to acquire a new language plays a role in the books that are chosen for reading aloud. Readers and listeners should not know all of the words but there should also not be too many new words (Norato

Cerón 2014: 86). Reading aloud allows readers and listeners to share their thoughts and ideas, which can increase comprehension (Norato Cerón 2014: 87). The results of a teacher reading aloud to students show that didactic interventions (like supporting the story with images, etc.) in any kind of learning settings help students to acquire new material. Therefore, reading aloud should be prepared and livened up with didactic activities around the reading aloud sessions (Norato Cerón 2014: 95). Even though it was difficult to motivate students, the findings show that the majority of them enjoyed being read to and that a combination of both their native language and the foreign language, as well as the use of images, helped them to understand the story better and to enjoy it (Norato Cerón 2014: 95). With this research, Norato Cerón concludes that reading aloud helps students to improve their English as a second language while also allowing them to find new ways to interact with each other. Students will learn new vocabulary and improve their speech by expressing their opinion about the story. With the reading comprehension, students feel more "engaged" with the text, which is also a motivational factor (Norato Cerón 2014: 95). Creating an environment where all students feel comfortable to express their thoughts and opinions is challenging, but is essential to reduce stress and motivate students to talk freely and think critically: "In general, reading aloud develops children's thinking and allows them to learn new expressions and to express themselves while they are immersed in the magical world of a book" (Norato Cerón 2014: 96-97).

3.11 Fluency and comprehension in reading aloud

Theories on first language acquisition do not all agree on a definition of fluency even though most definitions of the word include the concept of speed, rate, accuracy, text expression, prosody (Jiang 2016: 228). Torrin R. Shimono tries to give a complete definition of this concept: according to him, fluency is the recognition of words automatically. Readers need to be knowledgeable about the phonology, orthography, and semantic features of the word to retrieve it easily from their memory (Shimono 2018: 153). According to Kuhn and Stahl, the main components of fluency are: "accuracy in decoding, automaticity in word recognition, and the appropriate use of prosodic features such as stress, pitch, and appropriate text phrasing" (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 4). Xiangying Jiang analyzes different explanations of this concept, as well as the role of prosody in the different acceptations of the word (Jiang 2016: 228). The definitions that she analyzes are meant for fluency in one's first language and the fact that there is not any consensus on the word's meaning in the native language shows why it is also hard to find a proper definition for fluency in foreign languages (Jiang 2016: 229).

Even though the theories displayed above demonstrate that there is a link between reading aloud in one's first and second language, Torrin R. Shimono realizes in the article, "L2 Reading Fluency Progression Using Timed Reading and Repeated Oral Reading" (2018) that reading in a foreign language rarely sounds like reading in the first language (Shimono 2018: 152). In order to analyze reading aloud, he considers that fluency is necessary. Fluency has often been tested with time performance but other features need to be taken into account, like comprehension of the text (Shimono 2018: 153). In order to improve one's reading rate repeated reading, speed reading and extensive reading are effective but reading aloud is also helpful (Shimono 2018: 153). No studies have found the perfect method to improve reading fluency but, according to Shimono, reading aloud with chunking improves the reading speed and comprehension of readers. This method will be developed in the chapter on classroom practice.

Shimono focuses on fluency but he also highlights the fact that comprehension is the final goal of reading, and according to Kuhn and Stahl, fluency is necessary in order to achieve understanding (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 4). They study the concept of fluency in their article, "Fluency: A Review of Developmental and Remedial Practices" (2003). When one focuses on decoding letters and words, comprehension is impeded, which means that fluency is necessary to understand the meaning of a text (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 4). Learning how to read is a long process, Kuhn and Stahl analyze the reading phases theorized by Jeanne Chall (1983) and argue that these are necessary but not sufficient to acquire fluency (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 4). Kuhn and Stahl's conclusions state that "fluency instruction", which means explicit instruction of fluency, is more efficient compared to other types of instruction in helping students become fluent readers. When they compare different types of "fluency instruction" methods, it is harder to say which one is the most efficient (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 17). What Kuhn and Stahl can assert is that the results from the research on "fluency instruction" do not contradict the stage model, children indeed need to be at the stage where they can benefit from this kind of instruction: "Children need to have some entering knowledge about words to benefit from rereading but not be so fluent that they cannot demonstrate improvements" (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 17). Kuhn and Stahl underline the irony of studies based on "fluency instruction": one might think that "fluency instruction" help the learners to recognize isolated words more efficiently, but the results show that this is not the case. "Fluency instruction" is efficient to improve comprehension and fluency but not for "rapid recognition of isolated words" (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 18). Even though one study cannot give all the answers concerning "fluency instruction",

Kuhn and Stahl assert that the methods they analyzed in their article and thus reading aloud should be more practiced in classrooms (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 18-19).

There is a well-acknowledged link between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension but educators do not agree on the nature of this link: some believe that fluency is necessary to understand a text and others believe that comprehension promotes fluency (Jiang 2016: 230). Jiang focuses on second language learning and also emphasizes the role of fluency in reading aloud, as well as in the comprehension of texts. She analyzes the influence of reading aloud on reading comprehension for English learners with different first languages in the article, "The Role of Oral Reading Fluency in ESL Reading Comprehension among Learners of Different First Language Backgrounds" (2016). In order to do so, she tested oral reading fluency based on the following criteria: "oral reading rate (word per minute/wpm), accuracy (word correct/wc), efficiency (word correct per minute/wcpm), and prosody" (Jiang 2016: 227). As explained by Kuhn and Stahl, oral reading fluency is recognized as essential for first language reading acquisition. However, this process has been neglected in second language acquisition (Jiang 2016: 227). In order to understand the role of fluency, Jiang analyzes prosody (the ability to "segment the text into meaningful units"), rate, accuracy, and efficiency (Jiang 2016: 229). Orthography is different in every language and it is harder to recognize words easily for students, whose native language's spelling differs greatly from the English system (Jiang 2016: 232). The difference between first languages explains why some students learn English more easily than others: "The relationship between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension has been found to vary across first language groups" (Jiang 2016: 237). When the student's first language is closer to English, the link between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension in the second language is stronger: "As one of the first studies to measure aspects of oral reading with adult ESL learners, this study demonstrates that oral reading fluency can serve as a contributing measure of L2 learners' reading comprehension, especially for learners whose first language orthography is not too distant from English" (Jiang 2016: 238). According to Jiang, reading aloud should be more practiced in the methods to learn a second language.

Prosody

Kuhn and Stahl emphasize the fact that prosody is also an indicator of comprehension. To understand their point of view, one should keep in mind their definition of prosody. According to many theories, "prosody comprises a series of features including pitch or intonation, stress or loudness, and duration or timing, all of which contribute to an expressive rendering of a text (Allington, 1983; Dowhower, 1991; Schreiber, 1980, 1987, 1991, cited in Kuhn & Stahl 2003:

5). More precisely, Kuhn and Stahl give a list of features that embody prosody: "pausal intrusions, length of phrases, appropriateness of phrases, final phrase lengthening, terminal intonation contours, and stress. From a linguistic perspective, readers who use these markers appropriately are capable of making the connection between written and oral language" (Dowhower 1991, cited in Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 5). Prosody can provide a link between oral and silent reading When reading aloud takes place, expressivity and prosody are necessary and when one reads in silence, the text is not monotonous in one's head, which means that expressivity and prosody are also part of the process:

> When an individual provides a fluent rendering of a text, there is a tacit understanding that he or she is doing more than simply reading the words quickly and accurately; he or she is also reading with expression. Implicit in the phrase reading with expression is the use of those prosodic features that account for the tonal and rhythmic aspects of language. (Dowhower 1991, cited in Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 5)

Kuhn and Stahl say that prosody renders the text in an expressive way, which displays understanding and efficient reading skills (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 6).

Many theories, like the one explained above, demonstrate that reading aloud can improve reading comprehension (Jiang: 2016; Kuhn & Stahl: 2003; Shimono: 2018). However, according to J.S.H. Taylor, Matthew H. Davis, and Kathleen Rastle in their article, "Comparing and Validating Methods of Reading Instruction Using Behavioural and Neural Findings in an Artificial Orthography" (2017), many people believe that teaching reading with phonics: "a method of teaching people to read by training them to associate written letters with their sounds"[3] is efficient in order to read aloud, but can have negative effects on reading comprehension: "One frequent objection is that while phonics may assist reading aloud, it may not promote (and may even erode) reading comprehension" (Davis 2013, cited Taylor et al. 2017: 827). Taylor et al. wanted to understand whether teaching reading with phonics impedes comprehension. Their study was based on teaching reading methods for an artificial language, which means that for the participants' brains, it was quite similar to learning to read in an actual foreign language (Taylor et al. 2017: 846). They concluded that "phonics instruction" is beneficial for different reasons: "(a) reading aloud trained words was faster and more accurate, (b) generalization in reading aloud untrained words was faster, and (c) comprehension of written words was more accurate earlier in learning" (Taylor et al. 2017: 847), which is why

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[3] "Phonics" Def. 1. Collins English Dictionary Online, Collins English Dictionary, n.d. Web. 19 April 2020.

they agree with Jiang, Kuhn and Stahl, and Shimono on the fact that reading aloud improves comprehension.

Reading comprehension

Based on the advantages of reading aloud presented above, Jolanta Zając analyzes reading comprehension, called "written comprehension" in the article, "Varier les pratiques de lecture en langue étrangère" (2006). Written comprehension, which consists in understanding a text in a foreign language, is often used by instructors to teach new vocabulary and grammar points, but Zając believes that reading should be treated as a complex cognitive process rather than as a product to "consume" (Zając 2006: 26). For Zając, texts should be interpreted in order to be used efficiently and students should, therefore, ask themselves questions about the characters, the deictic, the context, etc. (Zając 2006: 26-29). To obtain an interpretation that is complete and results from debates between different opinions, Zając proposes the idea to read aloud to put the emphasis on sharing ideas and interrogating peers about the text instead of having the students read silently individually (Zając 2006: 29). Students can share their questioning and ideas with a partner or in small groups. After that, a discussion can be organized to find an interpretation with the entire class (Zając 2006: 30). Zając focuses on the interpretation of French texts (French as a foreign language) and emphasizes the positive impact of the interaction.

Zajac proposes a new way to practice reading comprehension in second language teaching. One of the reasons to find a new approach for this practice is that students' performance in reading comprehension can be improved. The results of the French part of Belgium in reading comprehension which are explained below show that Zajac's idea to modify reading comprehension with reading aloud could be tested in order to improve students' performance. Christiane Blondin, Christelle Goffin and Ariane Baye test the level of European students aged 15 in the field of traditional silent reading comprehension in their article, "Compréhension à la lecture et expression écrite en langue étrangère dans l'enseignement secondaire" (2016). They base their research on the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* and analyze the results for the languages that are most studied in Europe. The conclusions of the research show that the majority of European learners (23%) do not master the A1 level when it comes to reading comprehension in German. As for English, it is quite different; almost a third of the students tested (32%) master the B2 level. However, 13% of the students are still below the A1 level and 29% master the A1 level (Blondin et al. 2016: 7). As for French, most students master the A1 level in reading comprehension (45%)

but 17% are still below the A1 level. Even though one might tend to compare each language with the others, this would not give proper results. Indeed, English is the most studied language (Blondin et al. 2016: 8). In the French community of Belgium, the majority of students master the A1 level in German reading comprehension, which makes them the second-best students tested among 8 countries (Blondin et al. 2016: 9). As for reading comprehension in English, the results are quite similar to the German ones but this makes the French-speaking part of Belgium the sixth country among the 8 that took part in the research (Blondin et al. 2016: 10). This research analyzes reading comprehension but the writers do not tackle orality. They categorize reading comprehension in "Focus on writing", which means that they only conceive of reading comprehension as a silent process ("Accent sur l'écrit" Blondin et al. 2016: 14). The low performance in silent reading comprehension can explain the need for a new approach to reading comprehension.

3.12   Vocabulary acquisition

Many studies on reading aloud focus on young children before they can read by themselves. Few studies analyze the benefits for children older than six years old and even fewer research articles focus on the advantages of reading aloud for children who already know how to read (Elley 1989:176). Therefore, Warwick B. Elley analyzes vocabulary acquisition for children listening to stories in, "Vocabulary Acquisition from Listening to Stories" (1989). Motivation is an important part of any learning process, which means that listeners should be motivated by the story they hear in order to learn:

> For instance, typical stories are characterized by such factors as novelty, humor, conflict, and surprise. And these are precisely the variables that are calculated to raise arousal levels (Berlyne, 1960) and to produce enough intrinsic motivation for children to maintain attention and to learn readily from context. (Elley 1989:176)

Elley wants to understand more specifically the advantages of vocabulary acquisition from reading aloud to children (Elley 1989:176). The results show that after three reading aloud sessions in a week, children learn about 3 new words without any explanations by the teacher (Elley 1989:180), and when the teacher gives explanations on the new words, vocabulary acquisition can be doubled (Elley 1989:184). The occurrence of a word in a story plays a role in vocabulary acquisition as well. The more a word is present in a text, the easier it is for children to learn it. New words should be unfamiliar; children will not learn anything new if all the words are already mastered. Nevertheless, unfamiliar words need to be explained by context

or by pictures in the story. Motivation also plays a role in vocabulary acquisition: children need to be motivated by the story to enjoy it and to learn from it (Elley 1989:184). Elley's insights on vocabulary acquisition in the first language raise questions about vocabulary acquisition in the second language. Elley's results show that it is beneficial in the native language and the link between reading in the first and second language is attested, but studies are needed to certify the advantages regarding vocabulary acquisition in the second language with reading aloud.

A study by Kate Nation and Joanne Cocksey offers insight on vocabulary knowledge in the second language, but does not expand on vocabulary acquisition. Nation and Cocksey believe that knowledge of word meanings in the oral domain is helpful to read aloud efficiently for young children. They explain their point of view in, "The Relationship Between Knowing a Word and Reading it Aloud in Children's Word Reading Development" (2009). When children learn how to read, they are already familiar with the words they encounter. They have heard it before and according to Nation and Cocksey, oral knowledge of the words helps children to read aloud (Nation & Cocksey 2009: 297). Following this assumption, second language learners could have more difficulties in learning how to read when they have never heard the words before. The goal of their article is to test whether oral knowledge on vocabulary improves reading aloud, and whether small knowledge of a word suffices or if the children need to know exactly what a word means to improve the oral reading of that term (Nation & Cocksey 2009: 297-298). The conclusion of the research shows that even though some words are unknown to children they are nevertheless able to read them aloud. Moreover, when they recognize words, the depth of their knowledge does not predict the accuracy of their reading aloud. The correlation between word knowledge and reading aloud is more important when it contains irregularities between phonology and spelling (Nation & Cocksey 2009: 301-302), which means that second language learners do not need to know a lot of vocabulary before learning to read aloud. Children read more accurately words that they have already heard before but can also read some unknown words correctly (Nation & Cocksey 2009: 304). However, the conclusion is not completely clear:

> Thus, we can conclude from our data that knowledge of lexical phonology—familiarity with the phonological form of a word—shows an association with children's ability to read that word. But we have no clear evidence that semantic knowledge provides support over and above that provided by word-level lexical phonology, even when reading irregular words. (Nation & Cocksey 2009: 304-305).

Based on their study, Nation and Cocksey cannot assert that understanding a word directly improves the oral reading of the term, but familiarity with the phonology of its spoken form is helpful to read it aloud (Nation & Cocksey 2009: 305).

3.13 Pronunciation

Maria Martínez Adrián focuses on pronunciation for second language learners in the article, "The Efficacy of a Reading Aloud Task in the Teaching of Pronunciation" (2014). She states that reading aloud is essential to efficient communication but that it is often taught implicitly, which does not improve students' pronunciation, contrary to explicit teaching methods (Martínez Adrián 2014: 96). Therefore, Martinez Adrián investigates the effectiveness of reading aloud followed by "a noticing and awareness component" in an oral English class for university students (Martínez Adrián 2014: 97). Awareness is essential in order to improve second language learning (Schmidt 1990, cited in Martínez Adrián 2014: 98). Even though listening to correct pronunciation is helpful to acquire a foreign language, drawing attention to the linguistic features of the language is even more effective to improve one's language skills. In this sense, Martínez Adrián contradicts Krashen who believes that contact with an input + 1 is efficient to acquire a new language (Martínez Adrián 2014: 98). To improve the input hypothesis, Martínez Adrián proposes a teaching method based on "noticing and awareness": in the "noticing phase", teachers attract students' attention to linguistic features and in the "awareness phase", students have to think about the noticed linguistic features and deduct rules (Martínez Adrián 2014: 98-99). Reading a text aloud in imitation of an English recording is useful to improve pronunciation, but only slightly, and not significantly in unprepared oral speech (Martínez Adrián 2014: 99-100), whereas "noticing" while reading aloud is efficient in order to improve pronunciation, as well as writing. In other words, reading a text aloud helps to improve pronunciation for prepared oral expression, but the results do not state that it also improves pronunciation during a spontaneous interaction. In the "noticing phase" of reading aloud, students have to analyze their own production and compare it to an authentic one, which is similar to the "noticing the gap" phase in the "situation-problem" didactic framework. In the "reformulation phase" they have to improve their pronunciation based on this comparison (Smith and Beckmann 2005, cited in Martínez Adrián 2014: 100). Martínez Adrián concludes that reading aloud with a "noticing phase", a "metalinguistic awareness phase" and feedback is effective to improve adult learners' pronunciation. She tested this method on university students which improved their pronunciation (better assignment of stress, articulation, and intonation).

The majority of students realize their improvement after reading aloud with the metalinguistic phase and corrective feedback, which are necessary to acquire a foreign language for adult learners (Martínez Adrián 2014: 107).

3.14   Role of semantics in reading aloud

The role that semantics plays in reading aloud is quite controversial. Research emphasizes reading aloud at the basic level: "At a basic level, reading aloud involves translating orthographic information into a phonological response" (McKay et al. 2008: 1495). With this emphasis, most models focus on the direct pathway that one can find between orthography and phonology (McKay et al. 2008: 1495). However, these models also show "to a greater or lesser degree" that there is a link between semantics and oral reading. Cognitive neuropsychological theories support the idea that semantics plays a part in reading aloud. Studies in cognitive psychology also demonstrate that semantics, and more precisely "imageability", influences reading aloud: words that are easier to imagine are read aloud more easily than words that are more abstract (McKay et al. 2008: 1495). However, these theories have limitations, which is why Adam McKay, Chris Davis, Greg Savage, and Anne Castles investigate the role of semantics in reading aloud in a different manner in their article, "Semantic Involvement in Reading Aloud: Evidence from a Nonword Training Study" (2008). As explained in the introduction of chapter 3, the DRC model and the PDP models are both accepted by scientists as models that render the process of reading aloud accurately. The PDP model explicitly considers semantics and even though the DRC model does not contain a "lexical semantic route", semantics is nevertheless taken into account in theory (McKay et al. 2008: 1496). After conducting three experiments, McKay et al. state that semantics plays a role in reading aloud, but not in all cases: "The results showed that novel words given a definition were pronounced earlier and more accurately than novel words given no definition, but only for novel words with inconsistent pronunciations and only if the definition was learned prior to seeing how the word was written" (McKay et al. 2008: 1513). Nevertheless, their findings support the idea that semantics is involved in the process of reading aloud (McKay et al. 2008: 1515).

3.15   Examination of reading aloud

Sheila W. Valencia, Anthony T. Smith, Anne M. Reece, Min Li, Karen K. Wixson and Heather Newman state in their article "Oral Reading Fluency Assessment: Issues of Construct, Criterion, and Consequential Validity" (2010) that most teaching methods focus on reading

aloud when it comes to examination. Students have to read aloud passages linked with the material seen in class for one minute and the teacher records the mistakes (Valencia et al. 2010: 271). In their study on oral reading, they focus on "oral reading fluency", that they define as follows: "The ability to read text quickly, accurately, with proper phrasing and expression, thereby reflecting the ability to simultaneously decode and comprehend" (Valencia et al. 2010: 271). With the focus on "reading fluency" and on "words correct per minute (wcpm)", meaning the number of correct words that a student can pronounce in one minute, students tend to emphasize on their reading speed, instead of on their comprehension. This observation encouraged Valencia et al. to conduct a study in order to understand tests on reading aloud better. They also want to offer new examination methods that would not stress how fast students can read, even though some linguists believe that wcpm tests reflect both comprehension and speed (Valencia et al. 2010: 271).

To improve the way reading is examined, Valencia et al. base their ideas on Kuhn and Stahl: "Summarizing the research on oral reading fluency, Kuhn and Stahl (2003) concluded that prosody may provide the link between fluent oral reading and comprehension. They suggested that, unlike rate and accuracy, appropriate phrasing, intonation, and stress provide a clue that the reader is comprehending" (Kuhn & Stahl 2003, cited in Valencia et al. 2010: 272). This shows that they are other ways to certify readers' fluency and comprehension; prosody can show the readers' ability to read fast and to understand what they are reading at the same time. Tests have been conducted in order to understand how one can examine readers: fluency is still valued in order to check readers' efficiency, but rate and accuracy are also important (Valencia, Smith, Reece, Li, Wixson & Newman 2010: 272). Fluency attests to greater reading skills at an early stage of language acquisition when the reader is still decoding letters and words, but alone it cannot certify reading efficiency for adults (Valencia 2010: 273). After conducting their research, Valencia et al. concluded that fluency should be divided into several factors in order to show the accuracy of a reader: "When separate indicators of oral reading fluency (rate, accuracy, prosody, passage comprehension) were used in assessment, the result provided a finer-grained understanding of oral reading fluency and fluency assessment, and a stronger predictor of comprehension" (Valencia et al. 2010: 284-285). They believe that when these factors are analyzed separately, they can attest more accurately that one understands what one is reading.

3.16 Conclusion

Based on the theories explained above, one can notice that reading aloud is a complex task that requires skills. Scholarly articles do not all agree on the advantages of reading aloud or its effectiveness: some specialists decry this practice, whereas others state that it should be used more often in language teaching. Teachers' criticism towards this practice is expressed in different works (Gibson 2008; Huang 2010; Warner et al. 2016), but the conclusions of research often show that these negative aspects can be improved by preparation and training. Most of the works used for this dissertation acknowledge the drawbacks of reading aloud but state that the advantages are numerous enough to promote this practice in first and second language teaching. Lawson (2012) is more skeptical, he believes that reading aloud is beneficial for young children exclusively. Nevertheless, the study of scholarly theories shows that reading aloud can lead to communication and presents many advantages, such as improving comprehension, pronunciation, vocabulary acquisition, as well as social skills. Therefore, reading aloud should be used more often in second language teaching. Its effectiveness still needs to be demonstrated more thoroughly in Belgian teaching with practical studies in language classrooms, but studies show that it is helpful to improve one's language skills.

4   Reading aloud in Belgian secondary schools' frames of reference, programs and the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*

Chapter 2 shows that reading aloud was used in practice in the nineteenth century, but that educationalists do not value this practice anymore. However, Lah (2013) highlights the fact that reading aloud has never been imposed by legal documents, and that the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (2001) discourages the use of this practice. This chapter will analyze the latter, as well as Belgian frames of references and programs that are used nowadays for language teaching. The goal is to see whether reading aloud is mentioned in these, and why. Three educational organizations can be found in Belgium: one organized by the Wallonia-Belgium federation (official organized network), one organized by provinces, as well as communes (official subsidized network), and one organized by private associations or people (free subsidized network, confessional or not). These are subsidized by the French community. The free subsidized educational system is the most frequented, and is mostly confessional (95%) (Bouttemont 2004: 2). These three systems are coordinated by different educational organizations, but they follow the same common framework. All Belgian students have to acquire the same knowledge at the end of their compulsory education (Bouttemont 2004: 3-4). There is one common frame of reference for the three networks, and each one has its own educational program, that has to respect the elements present in the common frame of reference.

The latter takes the recommendation of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* into consideration and is different according to students' age. For primary school pupils, and teenagers attending the first degree of secondary school (first and second years), teachers have to use *Les Socles de Compétences*. For students in the second and third secondary school degree (third, fourth, fifth, and sixth years), instructors have to base their teaching on the document called *Compétences terminales*. This one exists for general and technological studies, as well as for professional and technical teaching, which are different school courses of study in Belgium. As for the programs, they are different according to each network. All of these documents will now be analyzed in order to understand the role of reading aloud in official recommendations.

The common framework for language teaching, as well as each program, have been analyzed with the same method: words related to reading aloud have been searched in order to check their occurrences, and the context, in which they were used. The corpus analysis program *Voyant Tools* was used for this analysis. The frames of reference, each network program, and the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* were inserted in this program. With this method, one can immediately see the words that occur the most. Furthermore, one can insert words in the research program to see the context of each occurrence. The following words' occurrences were analyzed: *lire (to read), lecture (reading), voix (voice), haute (loud), haute voix (reading aloud), silencieuse (silent), dramatization (dramatization), pronunciation (pronunciation), intonation (intonation), expressivité (expressivity), oral (oral), expression orale (oral expression)*.

4.1   Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)* provides the European point of view on language teaching. The Belgian frames of reference for general and technological, as well as for professional and technical courses of study are based on the information provided by the European document. The latter lists the different levels that one can master as a foreign language student (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2), and these are used to describe the level that Belgian students should master at the end of teaching. The *CEFR* will be analyzed in French in order to compare all the documents more efficiently because the Belgian frames of reference and programs are in French. There are 115,713 words in the *CEFR*, and the ones that occur the most are: *langue* (872 times), *niveau* (630 times), *compétence* (540 times), *référence* (479 times), and *exemple* (478 times). The French title of the document is *Cadre*

européen commun de référence pour les langues and is used as the heading of most pages, which means that *niveau* (*level*) and *compétence* (competence) are used al lot in this context.

As for the words related to reading aloud, *lire* is used 85 times. Most of its occurrences are related to silent reading, as in "lire pour information, par exemple en utilisant des ouvrages de référence" (*CEFR* 2001: 57). However, the *CEFR* mentions reading aloud, with the lemmas *lecture*, *voix* and *haute*:

> De nombreuses situations – sinon toutes – supposent des types d'activité mixtes. En cours de langue, par exemple, l'apprenant peut avoir à écouter un exposé du professeur, à lire un manuel à voix basse ou à haute voix, à communiquer en sous-groupe avec ses camarades sur un projet, à faire des exercices ou à rédiger un texte et même à jouer le rôle de médiateur, soit dans le cadre d'une activité scolaire, soit pour aider un camarade. (*CEFR* 2001: 48).

This quotation demonstrates that the *CEFR* does not condemn reading aloud. The document states that communication situations always imply mixed types of activities, which means that students are asked to perform different tasks at the same time in language classrooms. The *CEFR*, therefore, states that students can sometimes read manuals aloud. Students can also read any type of text aloud, and this represents an oral production (*CEFR* 2001: 48; 50). The *CEFR* does not only allow reading aloud in language teaching, it also gives instructions:

> Réciproquement, les utilisateurs amenés à lire un texte préparé à haute voix, ou à utiliser dans un discours des mots rencontrés pour la première fois sous leur forme écrite, devront être capables de produire une prononciation correcte à partir de la forme écrite. Cela suppose
>
> – la connaissance des conventions orthographiques
>
> – la capacité de consulter un dictionnaire et la connaissance des conventions qui y sont mises en œuvre pour représenter la prononciation
>
> – la connaissance des implications des formes écrites, en particulier des signes de ponctuation, pour le rythme et l'intonation – la capacité de résoudre les équivoques (homonymes, ambiguïtés syntaxiques, etc.) à la lumière du contexte. (*CEFR* 2001: 92)

Reading aloud is not an easy task and the *CEFR* helps language teachers to understand what skills need to be mastered in order to read aloud efficiently. The lemma *prononciation* is here related to reading aloud too. The lemma *lecture* is present 37 times, it describes the act of

reading, but is usually not linked with orality: "l'audition, la lecture, l'écriture ou le récit oral de textes d'imagination" (*CEFR* 2001: 47). This example shows that reading is often considered to be silent because it is contrasted with oral exercises. Nevertheless, the words *récit oral* can be interpreted as representations of reading aloud. Indeed, when oral stories are recited, they can be read aloud. However, this assumption cannot be proven by the rest of the occurrences of *lecture*, they are not linked with reading aloud. Nevertheless, some occurrences relate to oral reading. For example, the document states that public readings can be used as oral supports (*CEFR* 2001: 76).

With the occurrences displayed above, one might think that reading aloud is promoted in the *CEFR*, but it is more ambivalent. The *CEFR* acknowledges reading aloud as an example of activity in language teaching, but Lah (2013) was right when she stated that the communicative approach was not in favor of reading aloud. It is considered to be among mechanical activities, and the writers warn readers about such exercises:

> Si des activités de texte à texte de ce type ont lieu dans l'usage quotidien de la langue, elles sont particulièrement fréquentes dans l'enseignement/apprentissage et l'évaluation. Les activités les plus mécaniques de conservation du sens (la répétition, la dictée, la lecture à haute voix, la transcription phonétique) sont actuellement décriées dans un enseignement orienté vers la communication parce qu'elles sont artificielles et ont des effets en retour considérés comme peu souhaitables. Il est sans doute possible de les défendre en termes d'évaluation pour la raison technique que la performance y dépend très étroitement de la capacité d'utiliser les compétences linguistiques au détriment du contenu informatif du texte. En tout état de cause, l'avantage de l'analyse de toutes les combinaisons possibles des catégories d'une taxinomie réside non seulement dans le fait qu'elle permet de mettre de l'ordre dans l'expérience mais aussi qu'elle en révèle les lacunes et suggère des possibilités nouvelles. (*CEFR* 2001: 80)

Reading aloud and other types of activities, which are considered too mechanical are not favored by the communicative approach but are useful for evaluation. They are thus sometimes used in language teaching (*CEFR* 2001: 112). The *CEFR* even presents ideas on how to improve students' pronunciation with reading aloud: "Comment peut-on attendre ou exiger des apprenants qu'ils développent leur capacité à prononcer une langue ? Par la lecture phonétique à haute voix de textes calibrés ?" (*CEFR* 2001: 37). Here again, the word *prononciation* is linked with reading aloud. Even though this idea states that reading aloud can improve students' pronunciation, even in the communicative approach, it is only briefly tackled and remains in

the form of question instead of a conclusion. This shows that the *CEFR* does not disapprove of reading aloud.

The lemmas *voix* and *haute* are used 14 times relating to reading aloud and are also used to describe audiovisual reception when students follow a text that is read aloud to them (*CEFR* 2001: 59). The lemma *voix* is also used alone in the sections on talking and listening (five occurrences). As for *silencieuse*, *dramatisation* and *expressivité*, they are not used in the document, and *intonation, oral* and *expression orale* are only used in association with talking.

4.2   Socles de compétences

There are 32,564 words in the document *Socles de compétences* (2018) created for all school subjects. In the part dedicated to language teaching, there are 2,610 words. The words that occur the most are: *compétence* (21 times)*, demande* (19 times)*, informations* (15 times)*, élève* (13 times)*, and étape* (8 times). As for the words related to reading aloud, the results show that *lire* can be found four times in the section about language learning: one time in the table of contents, which means that there is an entire passage devoted to reading. It is indeed one of the four skills that need to be trained and acquired at the end of language learning. *Lire* is used in the objectives too: "L'objectif particulier du cours de langues modernes est la communication; celle-ci s'articule autour des quatre compétences: écouter, parler, lire, écrire dans le cadre des champs thématiques répertoriés par le Conseil de l'Europe" (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2018: 51). The document also gives a definition of *lire*, which states that reading means understanding a written message: "lire c'est comprendre un message écrit" (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2018: 54).

The substantive *lecture* is used five times: first to explain to readers how to read the different tables of the document, which is not relevant for this research. The four other times that *lecture* is used is to explain reading skills. New words should not impede reading for students and the latter should have a positive attitude towards reading, using strategies to read, and understanding the reading objectives (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2018: 54). Even though the word *lire* is present in the document *Socles de compétences*, reading aloud is not mentioned: the words *voix* and *haute* are not present in the document. *Silencieuse* was also searched to see whether silent reading was promoted in opposition to reading aloud but this term does not have any occurrences either. D*ramatisation* and *expressivité* cannot be found either.

However, the words *pronunciation* and *intonation* can be found in the passages about talking, but not in the reading section. The level to reach in talking in a foreign language states that students should have the correct pronunciation, and intonation: "avec une intonation, une prononciation et un débit qui ne nuisent pas à la communication, pour un auditeur patient, attentif et de bonne volonté" (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2018: 53). *Intonation* is also used in the listening section to state that students should be able to identify the right intonation when they listen to someone, in order to understand whether the sentence that is pronounced is a question, a statement, an order, etc. (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2018: 53). The word *oral* is also used six times in different forms (oral, orale oralement) in relation to talking. The document first states that there should be an emphasis on the oral side in language teaching, and that students should be able to express themselves orally in different fields at the end of their learning (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2018: 51-52) and *expression orale* cannot be found in the document.

4.3   Compétences terminales

The frame of reference for students in the second and third-degree of secondary school is called *Compétences terminales* (2020). The Belgian school system proposes different courses of study for students in this degree, which is why there are two types of *Compétences terminales*: *Compétences terminales pour humanités générales et technologiques* (general and technological) and *Compétences terminales pour humanités professionnelles et techniques* (professional and technical). Both documents have been analyzed. Students in the general and technological courses of study receive the CESS (Certificat d'enseignement secondaire supérieur) when they pass their exams. With this diploma they can register at the university, or any higher education institution. Students in the technical course of study also receive their CESS, but benefit from a qualification certificate (Certificat de qualification) that allows them to work in the field mentioned by their certificate. As for students in the professional course of study, they benefit from more practical teaching. They also receive the certificate of qualification, but can only get their CESS when they stay at school for a seventh year (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2020: "Titres et certificats").

4.3.1   Compétences terminales pour humanités générales et technologiques

The document *Compétences terminales pour humanités générales et technologiques* is new, and is only in force in the second degree of secondary school (third and fourth years). It is

called: *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis - humanités générales et technologiques - langues modernes*), and displays the unités d'acquis d'apprentissage (UAA).[4] These UAA have been used since September 2018 for third-year students, and since September 2019 for fourth-year students. They will be used for fifth-year students in September 2020 and in September 2021 for sixth-year students. Before the document comes in force for the third degree of secondary school, the official paper used presents the competences that students should master at the end of secondary school and is called: *Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes*. It dates from 1999, but will soon be officially replaced. As a trainee student, we are already asked to use the UAA regardless of the degree of teaching, but the official website *Enseignement.be* states that the document of 1999 is still used until 2021 (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2020: "Référentiels de compétences – les compétences terminales"). Therefore, it will be analyzed on top of the official document written in 2017.

4.3.1.1 *Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes*

There are 1,837 words in the document entitled *Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes. Humanités générales et technologiques* (1999). The five words that are used the most are: *langue* (26 times), *communication* (21 times), *élève* (15 times), *compétence* (14 times), and *générales* (11 times). *Lire* only is present once in the introduction on strategic competences, where reading comprehension is mentioned. It states that students should be able to exploit linguistic clues to anticipate what they are about to read. The word *lecture* is used five times, and is also used in this section to talk about reading comprehension (compréhension à la lecture) (Ministère de la communité française 1999: 3). *Lecture* is then used in the table of contents, and in the title of the section devoted to reading comprehension (Ministère de la communité française 1999: 2; 6). It is used two more times in this section, because it explains more precisely the conditions that teachers should respect during reading comprehension (Ministère de la communauté française 1999: 6).

Again, reading aloud is not mentioned. Indeed, the words, *voix*, *haute*, and *haute voix* are not used, *silencieuse, dramatisation* and *expressivité* cannot be found in the document either. On the other hand, pronunciation is used for times, but only concerning oral expression.

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[4] Acquired learning means the elements that one student knows, understand, and is able to accomplish at the end of the learning process. An acquired learning unity (UAA) is a coherent set of acquired learning, which is likely to be evaluated and validated: "Un acquis d'apprentissage est ce que l'élève sait, comprend et est capable de réaliser au terme d'un processus d'apprentissage. Une UAA est un ensemble cohérent d'acquis d'apprentissage susceptible d'être évalué et validé (Article 1er du Décret du 12/07/12)" (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles. 2020. "La certification par unité").

Students' pronunciation should be correct when they talk (Ministère de la communauté française 1999: 7; 11). *Intonation* is also used in the context of oral expression, as well as in a sociolinguistic perspective: intonations convey connotations and implicit meanings that are different according to culture (Ministère de la communauté française 7; 9). The lemma oral is used nine times, including three times in the idiom *expression orale*, but only relating to talking (Ministère de la communauté française 1999: 2; 3; 5; 7; 10; 11).

4.3.1.2 *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités générales et technologiques*

The document entitled *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités générales et technologiques* is much longer than it predecessor. There are 35,075 words in it. The terms that are used the most are *forme* (333 times), *fonction* (253 times), *niveau* (235 times), *ressource* (207 times), and *exprimer* (191 times). *Lire* is used thirteen times, including four times in the table of contents. It is one of the five skills now present in language teaching, because of the influence of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*: "Le *CECRL* décrit les grandes compétences à developer, dorénavant au nombre de cinq : écouter, parler en interaction, parler sans interaction, lire et ecrire" (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 9). *Lire* is used in different acquired learning unities relating to talking: "UAA - Lire pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" (A1+, A2), "UAA - Lire pour s'informer et/ou (faire) agir et/ou comprendre des opinions et/ou des sentiments" (B1; B2-). *Lire* can also be found in acquired learning unities based on writing: students are asked to reread their written production: "UAA - Ecrire pour (s')informer" (A1+), "UAA - Ecrire pour (s')informer et/ou faire agir" (A2), "UAA - Ecrire pour (s')informer, faire agir et exprimer des opinions, des sentiments" (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 35; 47; 75; 92; 125; 141; 143).

The lemma *lecture* is used 33 times in the acquired learning unities about reading and in the lexical fields used for reading comprehension, but none of the occurrences relate to reading aloud (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 5; 38; 41; 75; 79; 83; 125; 126; 128; 133; 143; 144; 146; 150; 156; 157-161; 163-169). The word *voix* can be found three times in acquired learning unities related to listening, but not in the acquired learning unities about reading (19; 55; 101). It is also used five times in the section on grammar which talks about the passive voice (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 194; 202; 211; 220; 230). *Voix* is also used in the table that lists the characteristics of linguistic supports that should be used in order to acquire listening skills in: "UAA - Ecouter pour (s')informer et/ou (faire) agir" (A1+). It is stated that

teachers' voice can be used as a support: "Formes de supports (y compris la voix en direct)" (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 15). It does not imply however that it should be reading aloud, it only says that teachers' voice counts as a support for the training of listening skills.

Silencieuse, *dramatisation*, *expressivité*, *haute* and thus *haute voix* cannot be found in the document. As for *prononciation*, it is present 21 times, but only in the acquired learning unities about talking (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 23; 30; 59; 64; 65; 69; 73; 74; 107; 112; 118; 123; 124; 151). The same can be said about *intonation*, that is present twenty-four times in the talking acquired learning unities (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 19; 23; 26; 30; 33; 55; 59; 64; 69; 73; 101; 107; 112; 118; 123). *Oral* occurs more times (82), but is related to talking and listening, not reading. It is used twenty-four times in the idiom *expression orale* (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 2; 4; 14; 21; 24; 28; 29; 31; 49; 57; 61; 66; 68; 70; 71; 87; 93; 104; 108; 115; 117; 119; 120).

4.3.2   *Compétences terminales pour humanités professionnelles et techniques*

Two documents are also in force for foreign language teaching in the professional and technical courses of study. The document called *Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes*, written in 2000 is still used, but will be replaced by the one entitled *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis - humanités professionnelles et techniques - langues modernes* in September 2020 for fifth-year students and in 2021 for sixth-year students, just like the frames of reference for general and technological courses of study (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2020: "Référentiels de compétences – les compétences terminales"). Both documents have been analyzed.

4.3.2.1   *Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes. Humanités professionnelles et techniques*

There are only 808 words in the document *Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes. Humanités professionnelles et techniques* (2000). The words that are used the most are: *compétence* (15 times), *communication* (9 times), *langue* (9 times), *élève* (8 times) and *matière* (10 times). The results are quite similar to the ones from *Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes*. The first four words are the most common ones in both works and *matière* is not relevant because it is present as the heading of each page, which means that *professionnelles* has more occurrences (7), it contrasts with *générales* in the document devoted to the general and technological courses of

study. *Lire* is not present and *lecture* is present three times in the parts that are devoted to reading comprehension (Ministère de la communauté française 2000: 3; 5). There are not any occurrences related to reading aloud: *silencieuse*, *dramatisation*, *prononciation*, *intonation*, *expressivité*, *voix*, *haute*, and hence *haute voix* are not present.

4.3.2.2 *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités professionnelles et techniques*

There are 25,347 words in *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités professionnelles et techniques* (2017) and the ones that are used the most are: *forme* (209 times), *fonction* (204 times), *niveau* (169 times), *ressource* (152 times), and *message* (118 times). There are similar to the ones that occur the most in the document for general and technological studies, except for *message*. *Lire* can be found seven times, for the same reasons as when it was present in *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités générales et technologiques*, (cf. above) but the acquired learning unity "UAA - Lire pour s'informer et/ou (faire) agir et/ou comprendre des opinions et/ou des sentiments" for the B2- level is not exploited for professional and technical studies (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 2; 9; 39; 51; 82; 97; 111; 165). *Lecture* is used fourteen times for the acquired learning unities on reading (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 5; 39; 42; 45; 82; 86; 90; 111; 112; 114; 120). *Voix* is used seven times for the same reasons as the document on general and technological studies (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 16; 20; 61; 108; 145; 153; 162). Reading aloud is not present in this document either: *silencieuse*, *dramatisation*, *expressivité*, *haute* and *haute voix* have no occurrences. As for *prononciation* and *intonation*, they are uniquely used to describe the acquired learning unities on talking (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 20; 25; 28; 33; 36; 60; 61; 65; 70; 75; 79; 80; 108; 121). The lemma *oral* is also present, but only related to talking and listening.

The document *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités professionnelles et techniques* presents the same results as *Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités générales et technologiques*, because both have the same structure. They are organized into acquired learning unities, and these are described precisely for every level. The document devoted to professional and technical studies is shorter and does not present as many occurrences, because the students in these courses of study are not asked to reach the same level as the ones registered in the general and technological courses of study,

which means that there are not as many acquired learning unities described in the document (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2017: 14).

4.4 Summary *CEFR* and frames of reference

The analysis of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* and Belgian frames of reference shows that even though the *CEFR* tackles reading aloud, it is not promoted in Belgium. Table 1 represents the occurrences of words that could be related to reading aloud in these documents. These terms are only used in association with talking and listening or grammar. There is no major difference in the occurrences between the older frames of reference and the ones from 2017, nor between the *Socles de compétences* and the *Compétences terminales*. This observation shows that new frames of reference do not bring reading aloud into Belgian teaching and that there is no distinction between younger and older students regarding oral reading. This practice is not promoted in any degree of Belgian teaching. The differences between general and technological courses and professional and technical courses of study are only quantitative, which means that reading aloud is not encouraged in any type of Belgian schooling.

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: CEFR (115 713 words)
Socles de compétences: SC (32 564 words)
Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes – Humanités générales et technologiques: CM (G/T) (1 837 words)
Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités générales et technologiques: CT (G/T) (35 075 words)
Compétences minimales en matière de communication en langues modernes – Humanités professionnelles et techniques: CM (P/T) (808 words)
Compétences terminales et savoirs requis à l'issue des humanités professionnelles et techniques: CT (P/T) (25 347 words)

Lemmas	*CEFR*	*SC*	*CM (G/T)*	*CT (G/T)*	*CM (P/T)*	*CT (P/T)*
Lire	85	4	1	13	0	10
Lecture	37	5	5	33	3	14
Voix	14	0	0	9	0	7
Haute	5	0	0	0	0	0
Haute voix	8	0	0	0	0	0
Silencieuse	0	0	0	0	0	0
Dramatisation	0	0	0	0	0	0
Prononciation	20	1	4	21	0	13
Intonation	11	2	2	24	0	18

Expressivité	0	0	0	0	0	0
Oral	209	6	9	82	9	56
Expression orale	17	0	3	24	3	16

Table 1: reading aloud occurrences in the *CEFR* and Belgian frames of reference.

4.5 Programs

The difference between older and more recent frames of reference is not relevant regarding reading aloud, which is why the older programs, will not be analyzed. Programs represent the methodology that is promoted in every Belgian network based on the official recommendations made by the frames of reference. The official, as well as the free subsidized programs will now be analyzed in order to understand whether reading aloud is promoted in the methodology of one of the networks, even though it is not valued by the frames of reference.

4.5.1 Free subsidized confessional network

As stated before, the free subsidized confessional network is the most frequented one. The programs written for the first degree, and both program created for the second and third degrees (one for the general and technological and one for the professional and technical courses of study) will thus be analyzed. There are 25 980 words in the document *Programme langues modernes premier degré commun* (2018). The terms that are used the most are: *langue* (252 times), *fontion* (180 times), *moderne* (138 times), *ressource* (116), *faire* (109 times). *Lire* is present nine times and *lecture* can be found fourteen times, but they do not relate to reading aloud. Even though *voix* is present four times, it is only used in association with listening comprehension as well as grammar. *Haute, haute voix, silencieuse, dramatisation* and *expressivity* cannot be found. *Prononciation* is present six times, but only in the acquired learning unities on talking. *Intonation* relates mostly to listening and talking skills, but the last occurrence of this word in the document is in the examples of learning activities to improve intonation. Even though *intonation* is not explicitly related to reading aloud, the exercise to improve this skill is based on oral reading:

Il est essentiel que ton non verbal et ton intonation disent la même chose que tes mots !

a. Avec ton partenaire, listez 3 émotions différentes ;

b. puis entrainez-vous en jouant ces différentes émotions pour dire le petit texte suivant : l'un lit et l'autre devine l'émotion mimée. (Enseignement catholique 2018: 65)

The quotation shows that reading aloud can be used to exercise students' intonation. As for the term *oral*, it is used thirty-eight times, and fourteen times in the idiom *expression orale*, but the occurrences do not relate to reading aloud.

The program for the general and technological courses of study in the free subsidized confessional network entitled *Programme langues modernes I, II, III 2ᵉ et 3ᵉ degrés* (2018) contains 41,601 words. The terms that are used the most in this program are *langue* (341 times), *niveau* (277 times), *fonction* (250 times), *faire* (207 times), and *modern* (191 times). *Lire* is used twenty-one times, *lecture* occurs forty-five times, and *voix* can be found eight times but these words do not relate to reading aloud. The same can be said about the term *prononciation* which has seventeen occurrences. The instances of *oral* (49 times) and of the idiom *expression orale* (23 times) do not relate to reading aloud either. *Haute, haute voix,* and *expressivité* are not present in the document. The only example of reading aloud is the same one as in the program for language teaching in the first degree: there are nineteen occurrences of *intonation*, including one to improve this skill with reading aloud (Enseignement catholique 2018: 81).

As for the program written for the professional and technical courses of study *Programme langues modernes formation générale commune 2ᵉ et 3ᵉ degrés professionnel et technique de qualification* (2017), there are 33 477 words in it. The terms that used the most are quite similar to the program for the general and technological courses of study and are: *langue* (264 times), *niveau* (242 times), *fonction* (212 times), *faire* (173 times), and *ressource* (167 times). *Lire*, *lecture, voix, pronunciation,* and *intonation* are present respectively seventeen times, twenty-five times, nine times, thirteen times, and eighteen times, but their occurrences do not relate to reading aloud. *Haute*, *haute voix*, *silencieuse*, *dramatisation*, and *expressivité* are not present. Even though the program for the professional and technical courses of study contains fewer words than the general and technological one, there are more occurrences of *oral* (56) and *expression orale* (27). The difference is only quantitative, these terms do not refer to reading aloud.

4.5.2 Official organized network

The analysis of the free subsidized confessional programs shows that reading aloud is not promoted, but only used as an example to improve intonation. In order to compare this conclusion with another program, the official organized programs for the second and third degrees (which are in the process of being approved) will now be analyzed.

There are 85,697 words in the official organized network's program for the general and technological courses of study entitled *Programme d'études langues modernes 2ᵉ et 3é degrés humanités générales et technologiques* (2019). There are 48 occurrences for the word *lire*. This term is used once in association with reading aloud, but the purpose of this association is to advise against reading aloud: "le locuteur ne doit ni lire ni « réciter » un texte préparé à l'avance" (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2019: 25). The program states that texts prepared for oral expression should not be read aloud. Nevertheless, *lecture* is present 82 times and one of its occurrences states that students can read aloud and compare their pronunciation with authentic material to improve their communicative skills (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2019: 60). The words *voix*, *haute (haute voix), pronunciation*, and *intonation* are also used in this example. They respectively have thirteen, one, and fifty occurrences in the document, but are only related to reading aloud once. The terms *silencieuse*, *dramatisation*, and *expressivité* are not present. *Oral* and *expression orale* can be found 190 and 88 times, but these words do not relate to reading aloud.

As for the programs for the professional and technical courses of study entitled *Programme d'études langues modernes 2e et 3e degrés des humanités professionnelles et techniques* (2019), it contains 76,294 words. The ones that could relate to reading are present in the same context as in the official program for the general and technological teaching, but cannot be found as many times because of the quantitative difference between the courses of study. Reading aloud a prepared text is not promoted for oral expression (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2019: 24), but reading aloud can be used to improve students' pronunciation (Fédération Wallonie-Bruxelles 2019: 55).

In conclusion there is no major divergence between programs written by different networks. Reading aloud is not promoted by the methodology of the free subsidized network, nor by the official organized system. Oral reading is sometimes mentioned, as explained above, but there are not enough occurrences that demonstrate reading aloud as a promoted skill. This concept is tackled, but not significantly. Educationalists do not recommend allowing reading aloud in oral expression, but state that it could be used to improve some communication skills. Table 2 represents the occurrences of the words that could relate to reading aloud in the different networks' programs.

Programme langues modernes premier degré commun, free confessional: FC 1 (25 980 words)

Programme langues modernes I, II, III 2ᵉ et 3ᵉ degrés, free confessional general and technological: FC G/T (41 601 words)

Programme langues modernes formation générale commune 2ᵉ et 3ᵉ degrés professionnel et technique de qualification, free confessional professional and technical: FC P/T (33 477 words)

Programme d'études langues modernes 2ᵉ et 3é degrés humanités générales et technologiques, official organized general and technological: OO G/T (85 697 words)

Programme d'études langues modernes 2e et 3e degrés des humanités professionnelles et techniques, official organized professional and technical: OO P/T (76 294 words)

Lemmas	FC 1	FC G/T	FC P/T	OO G/T	OO P/T
Lire	9	21	17	48	48
Lecture	15	45	25	82	62
Voix	4	8	9	13	8
Haute	0	0	0	1	1
Haute voix	0	0	0	0	0
Silencieuse	0	0	0	0	0
Dramatisation	0	0	0	0	0
Prononciation	6	17	13	50	47
Intonation	10	19	18	67	53
Expressivité	0	0	0	0	0
Oral	38	49	56	190	158
Expression orale	14	23	27	88	80

Table 2: reading aloud in the free subsidized confessional network and in the official organized network.

4.6   Conclusion

The analyses of the *CEFR*, the Belgian frames of reference, the free subsidized confessional, and the official organized programs demonstrate that reading aloud is not promoted in modern-day official documents. The *CEFR* tackles the use of this practice, but Belgian frames of reference and programs do not expand on this matter. This study of official recommendations shows that it is not required for teachers to use reading aloud in the communicative approach, but that it is not prohibited either: there is only one example in the official documents in which reading aloud is advised against. Reading aloud is not condemned in the communicative

approach, even though other types of exercises favorizing interaction, such as debates or conversations are preferred.

5   Reading aloud questionnaire for Belgian teachers

Now that the official recommendations regarding reading aloud have been analyzed, this chapter is devoted to the actual practice of reading aloud in Belgian teaching. To understand whether reading aloud is used in Belgian classrooms, a questionnaire has been sent to language teachers in Belgium. The results will now be analyzed.[5]

   5.1   Method

The goal of the questionnaire on reading aloud is to understand language teachers' point of view on this matter, as well as their practice of reading aloud in language teaching. The survey is based on Zoltán Dörnyei and Tatsuya Taguchi's work *Questionnaires in second language research construction, administration, and processing* (2009), as well as on "Question and Questionnaire Design" (2009) by Jon A. Krosnick and Stanley Presser, and on the advice of Professor Germain Simons and Ph.D. student Audrey Renson.[6] We worked with three other students who also write their thesis in the didactic field. The first part of the survey conveys information about participants and is common to the four questionnaires. The questionnaires were created by Camille Beckers, Sarah Graindorge, Estelle Hendricé, and Alexandra Provoost. Each student created individual questions, and submitted them to corrections to Mr. Simons multiple times. After that, the four questionnaires were pooled together, and the first part on participants' information was added. The survey was corrected several times again by Mr. Simons, as well as by three didactics assistants and one Ph.D. student. The questionnaire was then pretested with seven teachers.

The "web-based study" was uploaded and the link was sent by email to teachers, as well as to didactics internship supervisors. The sample was chosen in order to reach as many Belgian language teachers as possible (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 65; 70-71). Participants' confidentiality was ensured (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 77; Krosnick & Presser: 40), and they could choose to answer the entire survey, or could only answer one of the four parts. 52 teachers replied. 80% completed the entire questionnaire, including the one on reading aloud, which

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[5] Cf. Appendix for the detailed questionnaire.
[6] For more information on questionnaires, also see: Saris, Willem E. and Gallhofer, Irmtraud N. 2014. *Design, evaluation, and analysis of questionnaires for survey research (2nd edition).* New Jersey: Wiley.

means that 43 teachers replied to the questions on expressive reading. Question order followed the most logical pathway in order to facilitate answering. The program allowed participants to only reply to one question when they do not use reading aloud (Krosnick & Presser: 46). The Likert scale, without any neutral possibility, was used for the answer options (*strongly disagree, disagree, agree, strongly agree*). This allowed us to receive the most accurate replies possible (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 29; Krosnick & Presser 2009: 11-12; 21). Multiple-choice questions were constructed to understand teachers' points of view. Open-ended questions were not used because answers are subjective, and hence hard to analyze (Dörnyei &Taguchi 2009: 36; Krosnick & Presser 2009: 7), but optional explanations were included in participants' surveys in order to better understand the reasoning behind their answers.

5.2 Participants

Participant selection and description is essential to the analysis of a questionnaire (Dörnyei &Taguchi 2009: 103-104). The sample of people that took part in the survey were selected because they are currently foreign language teachers. Their age and gender were not asked, because it is not relevant to the study. Though, it is interesting to know how long they have practiced language teaching. Table 3 shows participants' experience in teaching. The length of the participants' careers is different, which means that the results convey various experiences in teaching. The majority of the participants are *licenciés en langues et littératures germaniques* (55.8%). 15.4% have a BA in Germanic language teaching (*bachelier en langues germaniques – AESI*), 9.6% have a MA in Germanic language didactics (*master en langues et littératures modernes, à finalité didactique*), and 5.8% have a MA in Germanic language translation (*master en langues et littératures modernes, à finalité traduction*). Other participants have other diplomas, such as a BA in translation, in French as a foreign language, or even in management. Some participants have two diplomas (for example, one BA in Germanic language and a master in Germanic language didactics). As for the pedagogical training of teachers, the majority (51.9%) have the AESS in Germanic language (*agrégation de l'enseignement secondaire supérieur*). 17.3% have the AESS in modern language, and 7.7% in roman language. 13.5% have the AESI (agrégation de l'enseignement secondaire inférieur) in modern language. Other participants have a CAP (*certificat d'aptitude professionelle*), CAPAES (*Certificat d'Aptitude Pédagogique Approprié à l'Enseignement Supérieur*) or a diploma in French as a second language.

45 participants (86.5%) teach in the superior classes of secondary schools (fourth, fifth, and sixth years). Three of them also work simultaneously in the inferior classes of secondary schools (first, second, and third years), and four others also work at the university, or in further education (*promotion sociale*), or in another higher education institution, as well as in a firm. 5.8% teach in a primary school. 67.3% of participants work in the free subsidized confessional network, 1.9% (only one person) in the free subsidized non-confessional network, 32.7% in the official organized network (FWB), and 3.8% in the official subsidized network, which means that two participants work in two different networks simultaneously. 25 participants work in the general and technological courses of study. Most participants who work in the professional and technical courses of study also work in the general and technological one. 80.8% of participants teach English, as well as another language, such as Dutch (59.6%), German (17.3%), or Spanish (13.5%).

Less than 5 years	Between 5 and 10 years	Between 11 and 15 years	Between 16 and 20 years	Between 21 and 25 years	Between 26 and 30 years	31 years and more
7,7%	13,5%	19,2%	15,4%	15,4%	9,6%	19,2%

Table 3: teaching experience.

5.3   Results

Data from the questionnaire on reading aloud in language teaching was collected with an online program and was analyzed. This chapter will now present a summary of the results' analysis (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 100-103). 93.2% of participants (41) use reading aloud in their teaching and 7% (3) do not.

The first question asked the participants whether reading aloud is helpful for language teaching. 51.2% agree with the statement *reading aloud is helpful for language teaching,* 46.3% strongly agree, and 2.4%, do not agree with the statement. The latter represents only one participant, but it is interesting because it shows that even one teacher who uses reading aloud does not believe that it is beneficial in learning a new language. 18 participants explained their answers: according to most teachers (8), reading aloud can be helpful for language learning, because teachers can correct students' pronunciation, which means that reading aloud can help to learners' pronunciation. Teachers can correct intonation, rhythm, accent, expressivity, and basic reading. One teacher stated that reading aloud can help teachers to check whether students understand what they are reading. Reading aloud also allows students to acquire fluidity, and

help them to improve their self-confidence. In this sense, participants agreed with Gibson (2008) and Warner et al. (2016). Two teachers discussed this idea of self-confidence and claimed that reading aloud allows more reserved students to speak. Another instructor added that reading aloud is an expression medium, and that these are all beneficial for language learning. Two teachers also stated that reading aloud allows their students to familiarize themselves with texts, and to understand syntactic features. Finally, one participant said that it is even more useful for English because orthography is different from pronunciation.

There is only one teacher who had some doubts regarding the efficiency of reading aloud at any stage of language learning. For this participant, reading aloud should only be practiced when students have already acquired a good level in the foreign language, because at the beginning, reading aloud means to pronounce written words through knowledge in the first language. The answers to question five illustrate these comments. Indeed, 68.3% of the participants strongly agree, and 29.3% agree with the statement: *reading aloud is helpful for pronunciation in the foreign language*. Five participants highlighted that teachers should correct mistakes; using corrective feedback, reading aloud can improve pronunciation. Only 2.4% do not agree with the statement, which means only one participant, but not the same as for the first question. The emphasis on feedback and explicit pronunciation teaching echoes Gibon's and Martinez Adrián's theories (2008).

One question was designed to understand whether participants consider reading aloud to be useful for oral expression. Huang (2010) states that reading aloud is the first step towards efficient communication. Therefore, the statement: *reading aloud is necessary for the progressive acquisition of oral expression, because it represents the first level of the progressive acquisition of oral expression* was proposed to participants. 48.8% strongly agree with it, 43.9% agree, 4.9% disagree, and 2.4% strongly disagree, which means that the majority of participants agree with Huang's theory. Sixteen comments show that the teachers which agree stated that reading aloud is surely the first level to master in order to be good at oral expression, and that repeating helps to learn. They stated that students can "talk" when they read aloud even though it is "only" a written text. They also said that students should learn to hear their own voice in a foreign language and that reading texts aloud that are not their own production first helps them to pronounce sounds correctly. Participants who disagree with the statement believe that learning a language starts with listening and talking without using orthography at the beginning. One teacher stated that he/she only asks talented students to read aloud because when the reader is struggling it impedes reading comprehension for all students.

This last comment represents the results of the next statement: *reading aloud helps to improve reading comprehension of the listeners*: 51.2% agree with the statement and 9.8% strongly agree, but 36.66% disagree, and 2.4% strongly disagree. Answers are more ambivalent: some comments from participants who agree with the statement claim that it helps the listeners improve their reading comprehension, only under certain conditions. Indeed, pronunciation, intonation, and pauses should be correct, and one participant says that students cannot read perfectly aloud, which can impede the listeners' comprehension. Two participants said that reading aloud is efficient for the listeners' comprehension only when the teacher reads aloud. According to some teachers, listeners have a tendency not to listen when it is a student who is reading, and others need to read alone to understand because every student has their own rhythm. One participant agrees with Lah's theory (2013) and stated that reading aloud should be preceded by silent reading, which highlights the importance of preparation. Three teachers stated that the benefits depend on whether students learn better with visual, or auditive support.

As for reading comprehension for the student who is reading aloud, the statement states: *reading aloud is harmful to the reader's reading comprehension*. The results are quite ambivalent too: 46.3% agree, 4.9% strongly agree, 39% disagree, and 9.8% strongly disagree. Most of the sixteen comments on this statement say that readers concentrate more on their pronunciation, reading, rhythm, etc. and cannot concentrate on the meaning of the text on top of that. In this sense, some participants agree with theories on the complicated comprehension of listeners during reading aloud expressed by Gibson (2008), Kuhn and Stahl (2003), as well as Taylor et al. (2017). Two participants highlighted that it is stressful to read aloud, and stated that silent reading should, therefore, precede oral reading. They agree with ideas presented by Gibson (2008), Lah (2013), and Warner et al. (2016). However, two participants also highlighted the fact that readers concentrate more on pronunciation, yet they do not think that this impedes reading comprehension. One teacher also stated that both silent and oral reading are hard for students and that they have difficulty understanding the meaning of the text no matter what form of reading is being used.

The answers are less ambivalent when it comes to the listening comprehension of students who listen. There are indeed 61% of participants who agree, 12.2% who strongly agree, and 26.8% who disagree with the statement: *reading aloud is helpful for the listeners' listening comprehension*. Eight comments highlighted that in order to be helpful, reading aloud sessions must be perfectly correct and that listeners are passive, which is not helpful for language

learning. Moreover, most participants allow their students to read the text at the same time, which means that it is a combination of listening and reading comprehension.

Pronunciation, as well as reading and listening comprehension have been analyzed precisely above, but other linguistic features play a part in reading aloud. Therefore, the next question in the questionnaire was designed to understand other potential advantages of reading aloud: *If you believe that reading aloud is helpful for language learning, to what extent do you agree with the potential benefits listed below:*

- *Reading aloud is helpful for the pronunciation of the reader;*

- *Reading aloud is helpful for the pronunciation of the listeners when the teacher corrects the pronunciation of the reader;*

- *Reading aloud is helpful for the text comprehension of the reader;*

- *Reading aloud is helpful for the text comprehension of the listeners who read simultaneously;*

- *The correction of pronunciation by the teacher gives the correct pronunciation of new elements to students;*

- *Reading aloud is faster than silent reading;*

- *Teachers have more control to correct pronunciation in reading aloud.*

The results of these items are presented in the same order in figure 1. The eight comments on this section nuance the advantages: it is helpful for the pronunciation of the reader, only when the student learns from his/her mistakes, and for the pronunciation of the listeners when they listen actively. As for corrective feedback, it is useful, but cannot be used all the time because it stops the reader during the reading aloud session, and it can discourage students. The amount of time devoted to having an efficient reading aloud session is considerable. It can take a lot of time, depending on the reader's speed, and the corrections. Three participants stressed the fact that they always use silent reading with reading aloud, which lasts even longer. Cho and Choi (2008), as well as Norato Cerón (2014) approve of using both reading aloud and silent reading to improve language's acquisition.
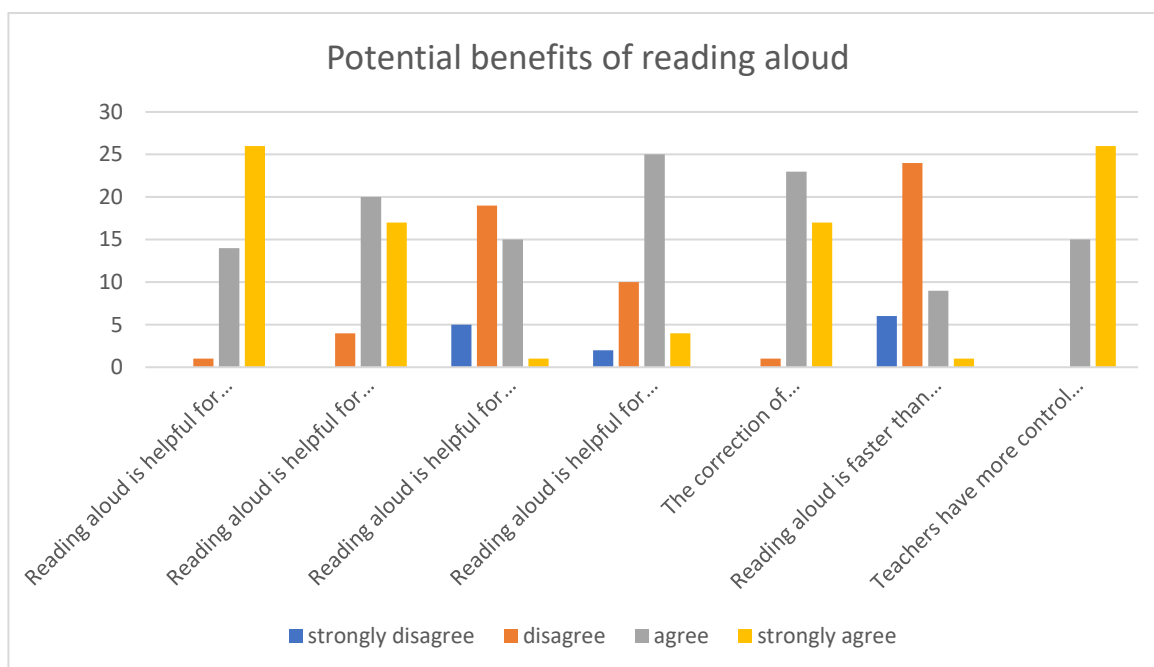
Figure 1: potential benefits of reading aloud.

The analysis of the advantages of reading aloud shows that most participants use it, and know the benefits of this practice. This practice's teaching in compulsory education has also been analyzed in order to understand whether participants believe that reading aloud should be more important in language teaching programs. 56.1% of participants agree, and 39% strongly agree and only 4.9% disagree with the statement: *reading aloud should be taught during the entire time of compulsory education*. The reasons for this disagreement, according to participants are that language teaching should exclusively be oral at the beginning of teaching and that teachers have many other vital exercises to do with their students. Other comments, however, state that reading aloud should always be taught in language classrooms, because it improves vocabulary acquisition, memorization, and pronunciation, but that it is really helpful at the beginning of learning to acquire a better pronunciation. This opinion relates to Gibson's findings (2008).

As for teaching specific features related to reading aloud, more participants disagree with the fact that it should be taught during the entire time of compulsory education. 9.8% disagree with the statement: *pronunciation in reading aloud should be taught during the entire time of compulsory education*. However, the majority agrees with Martinez Adrián (2014) and believes that pronunciation should be taught explicitly: 48.8% strongly agree, and 41.5% agree. Two comments illustrate this answer. One participant who agrees stated that it is easier to use reading aloud to correct pronunciation instead of interrupting students while they talk. On the

other hand, one participant who disagrees claims that teaching pronunciation in reading aloud should only occur when students are familiar with the sounds of the target language.

Disagreement about teaching intonation is even higher. 14.6% disagree, and 2.4% strongly disagree with the statement: *intonation in reading aloud should be taught during the entire time of compulsory education*. 48.8% agree and 34.1% strongly agree. Participants give some reasons that explain their disagreement: one stated that teaching pronunciation is more important and takes a lot of time already. Another said that intonation is incredibly important, but should first be taught without reading. One participant stated that intonation is too hard for foreign language students, especially for young pupils, that already struggle with this feature in their native language. One participant considers intonation to be important, but not compulsory in secondary schools.

The statement about expressivity: *expressivity in reading aloud should be taught during the entire time of compulsory education*, encounters even more disagreement. 17.1% disagree, 4.9% strongly disagree, 51.2% agree, and 26.8% strongly agree. According to one comment, expressivity is necessary in understanding the text which is read aloud. However, other comments state that, just like intonation, it can be hard for students, and is not required during compulsory education. Even though disagreements about teaching linguistic features linked with reading aloud give an interesting insight on the participants' practice, agreements remain more important.

Now that linguistic features of reading have been analyzed, the following questions were designed to understand teachers' practice better. First of all, I wanted to know whether they feel competent in teaching reading aloud and the results show that the majority does. 46.3% agree and 43.9% strongly agree, 7.3% disagree, and only 2.4% strongly disagree with the statement: *I feel competent to teach reading aloud*. Reasons were given to explain this feeling: one participant feels competent in correcting students' pronunciation but does not believe that he/she can to teach it more precisely. Another one stated that pronunciation can only be improved with time. Two participants believe that their language education is enough to teach reading aloud, but others believe that more specific training with specialists would be useful.

Participants were then asked how often they used reading aloud in their teaching. None of the teachers who answered dedicated one entire didactic sequence to reading aloud. Most participants (58.5%) use reading aloud exclusively when they realize that students need it, and 29.3% of participants use reading aloud every time they tackle reading comprehension. Other

participants still say that they use reading aloud regularly, but that it is not always possible to practice oral reading with large groups of students. Only one participant who has been working in the official organized network (FWB) for 31 years or more devotes one lesson per period to reading aloud.

The analysis of oral reading practices shows that it is often used by most participants. The following questions were created to understand how reading aloud is practiced. Participants were asked to give a number between 1 and 4 to the statements below. 1 means never; 2 means sometimes; 3 means often; 4 means always.

When I practice reading aloud, I:

- *Ask one student to read aloud;*

- *Ask multiple students to read aloud successively;*

- *Ask all students to read aloud in unison;*

- *Ask students to read aloud individually in a language laboratory;*

- *Ask students to read silently after reading aloud;*

- *Read aloud myself and students listen while reading simultaneously;*

- *Read aloud myself and students listen without reading simultaneously.*

Results are presented in the same order in Figure 2. Participants' comments on the preceding questions often state that they start with silent reading, then read aloud. They could not comment on this type of practice in this question, but with their explanations, one knows now that silent reading before reading aloud is practiced.

As for other types of practice analyzed in this question, three participants always ask one student to read aloud, nine often practice reading aloud in this way, fifteen sometimes ask one student to read aloud, and fourteen never do. Three teachers sometimes ask multiple students to read aloud successively, twenty do so often, and eighteen always ask multiple students to read aloud successively. Thirty-three participants never ask their students to read aloud in unison, only two sometimes ask that, and three teachers often practice reading aloud in unison. Reading aloud in a language laboratory is less practiced: thirty-eight teachers never do that with their students, and two sometimes exercise reading aloud in this way, whereas only one participant often asks his/her students to read aloud in a language laboratory. Thirteen

teachers never ask their students to read silently after reading aloud, eight sometimes do, eighteen often allow students to read silently after reading aloud, and two always do. As for reading aloud by teachers, five participants never read aloud with their students reading simultaneously in silence, twenty-one teachers sometimes do, thirteen often practice reading aloud in this way, and two always do. No participants, who read aloud while students only listen without reading the text simultaneously, and only three often do. Eleven sometimes practice reading aloud in this way, and twenty-six never do. According to the results of this question, the most common practice of reading aloud used by participants is asking multiple students to read aloud successively. After this practice, teachers favor asking students to read silently after reading aloud, and reading aloud themselves while students read the text simultaneously in silence. Asking one student to read aloud is less popular, but is still used sometimes. As for asking students to read aloud in unison, as well as reading aloud by teachers when students do not read simultaneously, they are rarely used. Reading aloud by students in a language laboratory is seldom ever used by participants.
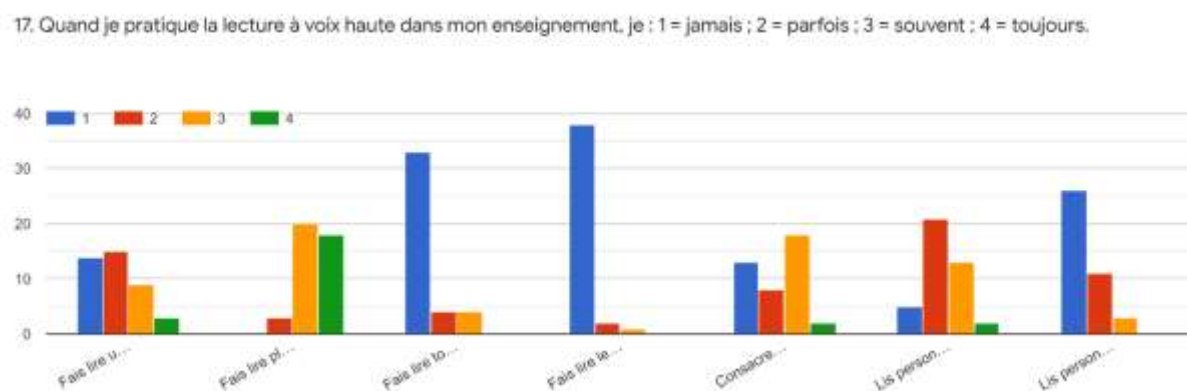
Figure 2: reading aloud practice.

Figure 2 shows how teachers use reading aloud in their teaching. The next question was created to see whether reading aloud should be exercised before being practiced by students. The majority of participants use reading aloud exercises in their teaching. 70,7% agree with the statement: *exercises on reading aloud are part of my teaching*, and 12,2% strongly agree with it. 14,6% do not agree and only 2,4% strongly disagree. Participants who use reading aloud exercises were asked to give the ones they use the most. 21 teachers answered and the majority (19) asks multiple students to read successively parts of texts, playlets, dialogues, role-plays, etc., with one different student for each character. One teacher asks one student to read one part of the text aloud, and when the reader is done, he/she has to call the next reader. In doing so,

students cannot anticipate their turn and have to follow attentively. Another participant asks students to prepare reading aloud in small groups, then asks them to present in front of the class.

The next question was designed to understand whether participants agree with the extralinguistic advantages of reading aloud, 75.6% of them agree with the statement: *reading aloud is rewarding for oral expression in class*. 17.1% strongly agree and 7.3% do not agree. Eight participants explain their point of view. According to them, reading aloud allows students to practice their pronunciation and anticipate, which is less stressful and allows students to be more confident. One teacher highlighted the fact that reading aloud should be well prepared in order to increase students' confidence. In this sense, they agree with Gibson (2008), as well as Warner et al. (2016). Another participant stated that it is gratifying for advanced students to be able to read aloud in a foreign language. Furthermore, one person stated that students volunteer more to read aloud than to perform any other type of oral expression. One teacher moderated the rewarding effect of reading aloud on oral expression. According to this participant, it is only rewarding when reading aloud involves role-playing. Furthermore, one participant who disagrees stated that students do not always see the link between reading aloud and oral expression, which means that, in their view, it is not rewarding.

Participants' point of view on reading aloud in compulsory education has been explained above. The following statements were designed to understand their point of view on future teachers' training regarding reading aloud. 52.5% agree with the statement: *reading aloud teaching should play a part in the initial linguistic education of future teachers*. 32.5% strongly agree, 12.5% disagree, and 2.5% strongly disagree. Three explanations were given by participants, and these give three different points of view. One person who has been teaching for 16 to 20 years benefited from reading aloud in his/her study of Dutch. Another teacher believes that reading aloud is necessary for language teaching, but does not need to be taught explicitly to future teachers, because it can be practiced without training. Finally, one participant believes that it should be part of the initial linguistic teaching in order to improve one's pronunciation. The results seem to agree with this point of view, which also relates to Oliver Mouginot's opinion in the article "Deux ateliers du poème pour 'essayer dire' en français langue étrangère" (2018). He states that reading aloud, more precisely reading aloud poems, should be used more often and more efficiently in language teaching. To improve this practice, he says that teachers' education should already deal with reading aloud (Mouginot 2018: 9).

As for the initial pedagogical education of future teachers, the results are quite similar. 53.7% of participants agree with the statement: *reading aloud teaching should play a part in*

the initial pedagogical education of future teachers, 31.7% strongly agree, and 14.6% disagree. One participant's opinion, as it has already been stated above, is that reading aloud is only efficient with a preparation in the form of silent reading before. Therefore, this teacher believes that reading aloud should be taught to future teachers, in order to help them realize that preparation is essential to efficient reading aloud. Moreover, one participant highlighted that young teachers do not all master pronunciation, and that teaching reading aloud could thus be useful. One participant stated that many other aspects should be inserted into the initial pedagogical education of future teachers, but that is another debate.

The results for the statement on continuing education show that more participants disagree. 47.5% agree with the statement: *reading aloud teaching should play a part in the continuing pedagogical education of teachers*, 20% strongly agree, and 32.5% disagree. One reason explained by participants for this disagreement is the same that the one explained for initial education: some participants state that reading aloud can be used by teachers without any explicit training. Another reason relates to teaching reading aloud in general, to students, as well as to teachers. Indeed, one participant says that students read better alone, and that reading aloud does not need to be taught. Some participants believe that it would be easier to organize reading aloud training during the time of continuing education rather than in the initial education, and that reading aloud training could be optional.

The questions explained above give insight into teachers' practices for reading aloud. The final statement was designed to understand why some teachers do not use reading aloud. The majority of participants use reading aloud in class, but around 7 teachers replied to this last task. They were asked to say to what extent they agree to the following statements:

I do not practice reading aloud in my teaching, because:

- *Reading aloud is "out of date", it is a practice of the past;*

- *Reading aloud is stressful for students;*

- *I consider reading comprehension as a silent process;*

- *The student who is reading aloud does not understand the meaning of what he/she is reading, because he/she concentrates more on the form (pronunciation) rather than on content;*

- *Reading aloud in a foreign language is a process which is more adapted to language teaching in primary schools;*

- *Even though teachers correct pronunciation mistakes, the pronunciation of the reader remains problematic, because it is not the correct model for listeners. There is a risk that these will reproduce pronunciation mistakes.*

Figure 3 represents the results of this question in the same order. None of the teachers who do not use reading aloud in their teaching agree with the fact that reading aloud is "out of date", five participants strongly disagree and 3 disagree. Agreement on the fact that reading aloud is stressful for the student who reads aloud is more ambivalent: one agrees, two strongly agree, whereas two disagree, and three strongly disagree. This ambivalence echoes the different points of view on anxiety regarding reading aloud in scholarly works. The same can be said about the fact that some teachers consider reading as a silent process: two agree, and one strongly agrees, but one disagrees, and three strongly disagrees. More participants agree on the fact that students who read aloud do not understand the meaning of what they are reading. Two strongly agree, and two agree, whereas one strongly disagrees, and one disagrees. Only two participants who both teach in the superior classes of a secondary school believe that reading aloud teaching is more adapted in primary schools, one teacher disagrees, and three strongly disagree, which means that most participants do not agree with Lawson (2012) who states that reading aloud is only adapted to young children. Among these three, one teaches in a primary school and uses reading aloud, but still gave his/her opinion on this question. The answers on the mistakes made by the reader which can influence listeners are again more ambivalent. One participant strongly agrees, two agree, one strongly disagrees, and two disagree.

The results show that teachers do not all agree on the reasons why they do not use reading aloud in their teaching, but that they agree that reading aloud is not a process of the past and that it is not only useful in primary schools. Comments give other reasons why reading aloud is not appropriate in some classes: when they are too many students, for example. One teacher also states that reading aloud is not dynamic enough for his/her teaching. According to this participant, students cannot concentrate on the teacher reading aloud, they need visual stimuli too.

23. Je ne pratique pas la lecture à voix haute dans mon enseignement, car :
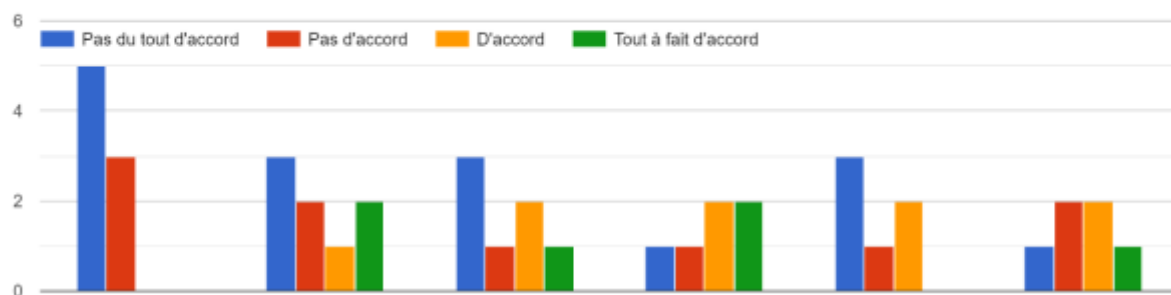
Figure 3: Reasons why some teachers do not use reading aloud.

5.4   Limitations

Even though questionnaires are effective to conduct research, there are some limitations (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 6). According to Dörnyei and Taguchi, participants are not always motivated and their answers can be superficial (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 7). Furthermore, participants want to present the better side of themselves and their answers can, therefore, be influenced by their desire to be socially accepted, which is called the "social desirability (or prestige) bias" (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 8; Krosnick & Presser 2009: 21; 37). Other biases can play a role in the limitations of questionnaires, like the tendency to overly agree on the Likert scale with the presented statements (Krosnick & Presser 2009: 22-23). It is demonstrated by Krosnick and Presser that the order of the Likert scale influences answers, which is why it is presented as follows in the questionnaire on reading aloud: *strongly disagree – disagree – agree – strongly agree* (Krosnick & Presser: 26). With this order, I tried to limit the tendency to overly agree, but nothing shows that it worked. The "halo" effect, which is the tendency of overgeneralization can also be problematic. In this questionnaire, for example, one teacher assumed that every language teacher uses reading aloud, but the results demonstrate that it is not the case. Finally, questionnaires can be too long, which means that participants can get bored and not answer as precisely to all questions (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 9; Krosnick & Presser: 27). In the case of this questionnaire, it can be long for participants, because it contains four different surveys.

Translations of questionnaires can be difficult as well (Dörnyei & Taguchi 2009: 51). Participants should understand questions the same way, even though they answer in different languages. The questionnaire presented above was exclusively conducted in French, in order to be suitable for all foreign language teachers of the French-speaking community of Belgium, but

the results are here presented in English. Some details can hence be a little bit different because of translations, but the meaning of each question has been respected in the English presentation. Another aspect of the questionnaire that could be improved is linked with feedback on results. We did not propose to send feedback on results to teachers who are interested in this study; we only asked if they were interested to answer more precise questions in an interview, but without success (Dörnyei and Taguchi 2009: 78). This idea of interest can also be problematic. Indeed, teachers who are interested in the subject of the questionnaire are more willing to answer. The results presented above show that many teachers use reading aloud, but this observation cannot be overgeneralized because there are only 43 answers from people who might be interested in reading aloud in the first place. Research on a larger sample needs to be conducted to compare the results of this questionnaire with it.

5.5 Discussion and conclusion

The conclusions of the questionnaire on reading aloud show that many teachers with various experience use reading aloud and understand its advantages. Most participants agree on the fact that reading aloud improves pronunciation, but answers about other positive aspects of this practice are more hesitant. This ambivalence echoes the different scholarly points of view and demonstrates that research still needs to be conducted in order to understand the role of reading aloud more thoroughly. Nevertheless, most participants believe that reading aloud deserves to be taught in language classrooms.

6 Classroom practice

The research conducted for this dissertation shows that reading aloud has many advantages and that it can be used in language teaching. The importance of preparation and explicit teaching have been highlighted, which is why this chapter will suggest some ways to practice reading aloud efficiently. One might think that reading aloud consists exclusively of reading a story to an audience, but it involves many other important aspects. For example, summarizing the story after reading aloud, asking questions about the content, expressivity, visual stimuli, etc. All these little things that help students to read the story aloud should not be forgotten when suggesting teaching methods (Bregeon 2007: 277). Propositions based on theories demonstrated in chapter 3 will be explained, and some didactic sequences which have been tested by trainee teachers will be suggested.

6.1   Social side of reading aloud

In order to help students to acquire the oral reading skills presented in chapter 3, Bregeon proposes a specific didactic plan in her article "En situation de passeur culturel, des élèves en grande difficulté scolaire s'approprient les compétences du lecteur à voix haute" (2007). Secondary school's students that have problems with school read aloud a youth album to young children every two weeks. In doing so, they are able to improve their reading skills and to pass culture down (Bregeon 2007: 272). Every session of reading aloud is recorded. With the video, the students that read aloud can watch themselves and analyze what they acquired and what subject they still need to work on. Moreover, the teachers ask questions about the video in order to help them think about their performance. Students' reflection should be focused on language, reading and comprehension (Bregeon 2007: 272). The criteria for the analysis are: the deciphering, the respect of punctuation, intonation, the quality of the explanations, the book choice and the work done to prepare the reading (Bregeon 2007: 277-278). Bregeon developed this pedagogical procedure because she came to realize that traditional methods in the French school system did not help students who struggled a lot with reading. Therefore, she focuses on readers who cannot decipher the words and texts efficiently (Bregeon 2007: 273). She wants students to feel comfortable in the process of learning, which is why she focuses on the social aspect of reading aloud with young children. According to Bregeon, students can progress in their learning by reading stories to young children (Bregeon 2007: 274).

Bregeon's suggestion to use reading aloud is divided into different stages. First, the students choose the album that they are going to read two weeks later and analyze whether it reflects their reading skills, which is not innate and takes time (Bregeon 2007: 275). The second step is the presentation of the album in front of the class. Students present their book and read a few pages aloud, then they summarize it. The teacher records them and the videos are then analyzed by the entire class (Bregeon 2007: 276). After that, students read to kindergarten children. To create enjoyable reading sessions, the struggling students read stories aloud to the same group of young children during the entire year to build a relationship with the younger students (Bregeon 2007: 277).

In addition to the emphasis on the social aspects of reading aloud. Bregeon highlights the importance of reflection and metacognition with the videos. She concludes that watching one's performance and analyzing it are major elements that can improve reading aloud skills. She also focuses on enjoyment. When students enjoy being involved in the reading aloud

sessions, they spend more time preparing and reading, which helps to improve their competence (Bregeon 2007: 280):

> Ils (les adolescents) attribuent à la lecture à voix haute trois sources de progression :
>
> - L'aide apportée par les pairs qui analysent leur prestation. Ils se sentent démunis s'ils ne peuvent avoir recours à un tiers et expriment un sentiment d'impuissance à définir des stratégies pour surmonter leurs difficultés. Lire à voix haute évite qu'ils demeurent dans des attitudes passives.
>
> - L'outil vidéo qui leur permet eux-mêmes d'analyser leur prestation.
>
> - Les interventions des élèves de maternelle, qui ont un effet régulateur. La relation avec eux est décrite comme un vecteur d'application personnelle dans l'acte de lire. (Bregeon 2007: 282)

Even though she tested her method in the students' native language, it could still be used in second language teaching. It would not be as easy to organize, but Belgium has three national languages. Students who learn Dutch or German as a second language could benefit from the same kind of teaching, with kindergarten children, whose first language is Dutch or German.

Tost also takes the social side of reading aloud into consideration in her suggestion and proposes a method for second language teaching. She presents a method, which is more feasible in language classrooms because it only involves groups of two or three students, without the intervention of children. One student in the group reads aloud and partners listen and help the reader with pronunciation. When the reader has read the entire text, they switch roles and the reader becomes a listener. With this method, each member of the group repeats the same material and Tost states that repeated reading aloud is helpful to improve one's pronunciation, reading speed, expression, accuracy, and fluency, as well as vocabulary acquisition in a foreign language. Tost promotes heterogeneous groups to have efficient reading aloud sessions. Partners should have different levels of English: one advanced student with a student that struggles more. Even though there is one more proficient speaker, both students should give feedback on the other learner's reading aloud skills (Tost 2013: 35). Trost's method is based on research which demonstrates that working in groups with stronger and weaker students is helpful. They trust the more efficient speakers and repeat their correct pronunciation, this enables students' abilities to question one's pronunciation and it creates debates, which require the students to talk amongst each other. The main goal of Tost's method was to improve the

students' oral reading pronunciation but interviews with the readers, later on, show that reading aloud has also improved their reading comprehension (Tost 2013: 39), which is why reading aloud in small groups can be used in Belgian language teaching.

6.2   Fluency and comprehension

Kuhn and Stahl want to improve readers' comprehension and pronunciation with their teaching methods. Their theory demonstrates the importance of fluency to improve comprehension while reading aloud in one's first language. Kuhn and Stahl state that it is hard to know what works best to acquire fluency but there is a certain kind of certainty when it comes to what does not work: when only one student reads aloud, the other ones tend to daydream and consequently do not benefit from reading aloud. Moreover, when students read by themselves, they do not focus on challenging parts of the text but only on what they master already. Kuhn and Stahl say that an efficient method is when the teacher reads aloud and includes the students in the reading process (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 582). Chapter 5 shows that most of the questionnaire's participants do not often practice reading aloud in this way. In order to use it effectively, Kuhn and Stahl suggest two reading methods: "repeated reading" and "assisted reading". Repeated readings consist of a student reading one passage repeatedly and assisted reading is when a student reads one passage repeatedly along with a model like a teacher or an audio version of the passage (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 582-583). Kuhn and Stahl explain the positive effects of repeated reading: the reasons for these positive effects are not completely certain. The benefits could be due to the more significant amount of reading the students have to do altogether. Indeed, several studies demonstrate that both repeated reading of one single text and non-repeated reading of a large number of texts benefit the reader (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 17). Nevertheless, "repeated reading" methods are time-consuming and not always feasible (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 9). Studies show that "assisted reading" is more efficient to improve fluency than "repeated reading" methods (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 383), which is why Kuhn and Stahl propose teaching methods based on "assisted reading".

They suggest an efficient way to teach reading aloud in larger classrooms during a year. On the first day of such a process, the teacher reads aloud; the reader and listeners focus on meaning. Then the teacher explains some vocabulary, and asks questions about the significance of the text. The document then needs to be practiced at home by students: they should read it aloud, to their parents for example. This process of reading aloud at home should be practiced as many times as necessary in order for the students to become fluent. On the second day,

students read aloud with one partner: one learner reads one page aloud while the other one monitors the reading and then they switch. In addition to this, students are asked to read a book of their own choice for their enjoyment in class (for 15 minutes at the beginning of the year and for 30 minutes at the end of the year) (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 383). This reading process tested on all children improved their reading in their first language substantially: "Children gained an average of nearly two years in reading growth in the course of their second-grade year" (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 383). Children who had difficulties with reading also improve greatly with the support of their teacher (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 383). The reason for this success is, according to Kuhn and Stahl, linked with the fact that children read a lot more than with traditional programs, which improves their understanding of texts and their reading (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 384). The type of reading aloud teaching suggested by Kuhn and Stahl needs to be tested for second language acquisition, but their conclusions are encouraging to try. This method could be used in Belgian second language teaching, but students would not be able to read aloud to their parents when these do not speak the foreign language. Another way to practice reading aloud at home can be suggested: students could record themselves and the videos could be analyzed in class.

Shimono analyzed the efficiency of reading aloud with chunking in his article, "L2 Reading Fluency Progression Using Timed Reading and Repeated Oral Reading" (2018) and the results show that it is effective in improving one's reading speed and comprehension, which means that reading aloud improves reading fluency (Shimono 2018: 172-174). Chunking allows readers to know which parts of the text are more important, and knowledge on the essential parts of a text helps readers to understand it better (Shimono 2018: 174-175). Shimono's research concludes that reading aloud with chunking during one academic semester improves reading fluency in reading for struggling first-year college students from Japan which learn a foreign language (Shimono 2018: 174). Shimono's insights demonstrate that preparation is useful in order to teach reading aloud. Chunking the text before reading helps students understand better. This method can be used in Belgian foreign language teaching while preparing texts that are going to be read aloud.

6.3   Motivation

Motivation should be taken into consideration while teaching reading aloud: Kuhn and Stahl emphasize its importance, among other essential features of oral reading. To improve the effectiveness of reading, students have to be motivated and enjoy the text. An example of a

motivation to read is to make students read their text to an audience (for example to younger students like kindergarteners) (Kuhn & Stahl 2003: 15). In this sense, Bregeon agrees with them. The difficulty of the text also influences motivation. The material should not be too simple nor too difficult, especially for bad readers (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 383). Readers should read as many texts as possible and repeat them as many times as necessary to become fluent. (Kuhn & Stahl 2002: 383).

Other theories also focus on learners' interests to provide more efficient reading aloud teaching. Becky Iwasaki, Timothy Rasinski, Kasim Yildirim and Belinda S. Zimmerman focus on signing in their article "Let's Bring Back the Magic of Song for Teaching Reading" (2013). According to them, many scholarly studies suggest that signing could improve students' reading skills (Iwasaki et al. 2013: 137). Signing songs while reading the lyrics is a form of reading aloud that can motivate students, even more so, when they like the melody (Iwasaki et al. 2013: 138). Iwasaki et al. used songs with first-graders and the results after a year show that children improved their reading. However, other types of instructions were also given, which makes it hard to understand the actual role that signing songs played in the improvement (Iwasaki et al. 2013: 138). Nevertheless, melodies can help students enjoy reading aloud, which is why using songs is encouraged (Iwasaki et al. 2013: 140-141).

Another way to increase students' motivation in foreign language teaching is to create a stress-free environment. Norato Cerón suggests introducing a "reading corner" in language teaching. Students should not be anxious about this concept because they can just read without being tested on their reading skills. The goal is to improve their reading performance and to help them express their opinion in an environment that allows them to share their ideas with others: "The main objective of the Reading Corner sessions is to help students become successful readers by developing critical thinking skills which allow them to analyze facts, organize and generate ideas, defend opinions and solve problems" (Centro Colombo Americano, n.d., cited in Norato Cerón 2014: 84). When students are asked to express their ideas, they focus on communication rather than on the correction of errors, they are more confident and motivated (Norato Cerón 2014: 95).

6.4   Tested teaching methods in Belgium

The articles on classroom practice explained above show that reading aloud can be used in Belgian teaching. The examples described throughout this chapter can deepen one's knowledge on the best reading aloud teaching methods. Nevertheless, more research can still be done to

find more ways to use this practice efficiently and variously. The following paragraphs are based on actual didactic sequences that were tested in Belgian institutions.

To train students to read aloud, teachers should master the essential elements for an efficient session of reading aloud. Daphné Guillaume states that instructors in the Haute Ecole Charlemagne (Liège) are not trained to teach reading aloud and proposes different ways to improve this situation in "Beter voorlezen ! ou comment améliorer la lecture à voix haute des futurs professeurs de langues grâce au livre audio" (2019). She proposes to teach future language teachers with an audiobook, whose quality needs to be high (good sound, etc.). With this method, she hopes to improve future teachers' motivation for literature. Reading aloud is not always linked with literature, but, in this case, Guillaume decided to include it in her didactic sequence. With the audiobook, she wants to show that different types of material can encourage students to read. The advantage is that students can read and listen to the correct pronunciation of words, which they might have mispronounced (Guillaume 2019: 88). She tested her didactic program for an efficient preparation to read aloud with future language teachers in the Haute Ecole Charlemagne and one of her goals was for them to improve their fluency in oral reading (Guillaume 2019: 89). She tested the students that want to become teachers before the two teaching weeks, as well as at the end of these. The results show that they improved their pronunciation and expressivity. Another advantage of her teaching is that the annotation of the texts that are read aloud is helpful to check whether students have understood the meaning. Students were satisfied with being taught how to read aloud with an audiobook (Guillaume 2019: 89). Guillaume's article shows that future teachers in the Haute Ecole Charlemagne are usually not taught how to read aloud. Teachers should nevertheless master this process in order to teach it efficiently to their students, which is why Guillaume proposes an attractive way to teach reading aloud. Her suggestions can be used in secondary schools as well.

Florine Roland also focuses on training teachers in order to help them teach reading aloud efficiently in "La lecture d'albums dans la formation des instituteur·trice·s maternel·le·s" (2019). According to her, reading aloud sessions can benefit young children when teachers know exactly what to do. She focuses on reading aloud in kindergartens but her article nevertheless highlights elements that are useful for second language teaching. First, she too states that reading aloud should be prepared: the text should be analyzed, interpreted, and annotated by the teacher, who should then work on expressivity and body language (Roland 2019: 72). Moreover, teachers should consider the listeners' reactions when they read; there should be a relationship between the reader and the audience to generate pleasure for all

individuals taking part in the reading aloud process (Roland 2019: 73). The listeners' reaction will convey whether they are enjoying the reading aloud session or not (Roland 2019: 75). Reading aloud in secondary schools should also take the audience into consideration.

Pierre Outers also emphasizes the importance of reading aloud and its preparation in teaching. He explains his point of view in "Lecture à voix haute de contes" (2019). According to him, an efficient oral reading session needs to introduce students to reading. It can be used for teaching new subjects afterwards, or only for pleasure. He observes that students who are asked to read tales aloud are mostly unprepared and read without any expression (Outers 2019: 79). According to Outers, an efficient reading aloud session should convey the reader's interpretation of the text. The latter can be conveyed with linguistic features (fluidity, volume variations, delivery, intonation, pauses), as well as extralinguistic features (stable posture, few movements, look alternating between text and audience) (Outers 2019: 79). Students have to read aloud unprepared at the beginning of teaching. The results show that their productions are weak. After this pretest, teaching of the important features of reading aloud, cited above, takes place. Finally, after the preparation, students have to read aloud in a social context in front of other students. The final prepared reading aloud session was of good quality (Outers 2019: 81-82). Another way to prepare students to read aloud is to propose models to follow: teachers can read aloud themselves, and professional storytellers could also be invited. Students could also be recorded during their own reading aloud sessions to see their body language, for example, and improve their reading aloud and posture. With his focus on preparation, Outers highlights the importance of reading aloud in one's first language. It can bring new knowledge and pleasure to students (Dezutter 1996-1997, cited in Outers 2019: 83). Teachers should, therefore, learn how to use reading aloud for teaching and students should be prepared for reading aloud sessions (Outers 2019: 8). Outters' suggestion can be adapted to foreign language teaching; texts can be prepared and read aloud in the target language.

The analysis of classroom practice shows that reading aloud can be used in teaching. Theories described above can thus be adapted to Belgian foreign language teaching. More research can still be done to demonstrate the effectiveness of reading aloud, but the many advantages and examples which have already been explained, demonstrate that the use of reading aloud is helpful to improve the acquisition of a foreign language.

7   Conclusion

This dissertation has analyzed reading aloud in order to understand whether it is useful for language teaching. Research shows that reading aloud was more promoted in the nineteenth century, but that this practice is still tackled in official programs and used by some teachers nowadays. Nevertheless, scholarly articles do not all agree on its advantages in second language acquisition. The entire work presented above was devoted to understanding this practice more thoroughly and this dissertation concludes that reading aloud is helpful for language teaching. This statement is based on the analysis of Belgian history, scholarly articles, the study of official requirements, as well as teaching practice. Reading aloud presents many advantages for language students. It can help them to acquire communication skills like pronunciation, and to feel more confident regarding their competences. Even though speaking in a foreign language can always be stressful, reading aloud needs to be prepared, which can reduce anxiety. Suggestions to use reading aloud in foreign language classrooms have been explained and even though research still needs to be done to assert the general advantages of oral reading, this practice can be used in second language teaching.

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Appendix

1. Depuis combien d'années enseignez-vous ?
53 réponses

- Moins de 5 ans
- Entre 5 et 10 ans
- Entre 11 et 15 ans
- Entre 16 et 20 ans
- Entre 21 et 25 ans
- Entre 26 et 30 ans
- 31 ans et plus
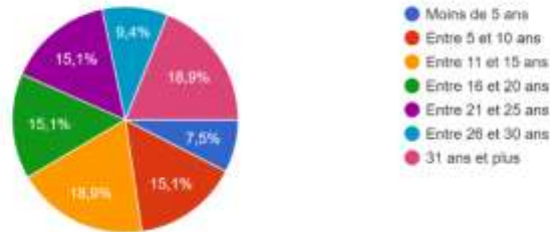
2. Quel(s) diplôme(s) SCIENTIFIQUE(S) possédez-vous ? (Vous pouvez cocher plusieurs réponses)
53 réponses
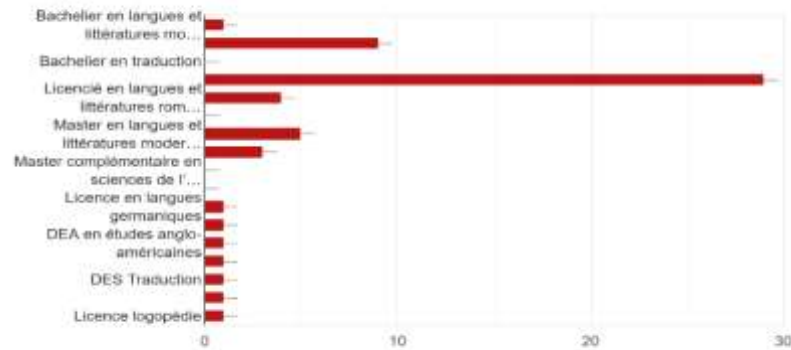
3. Quel(s) diplôme(s) PEDAGOGIQUE(S) possédez-vous ? (Vous pouvez cocher plusieurs réponses)
53 réponses
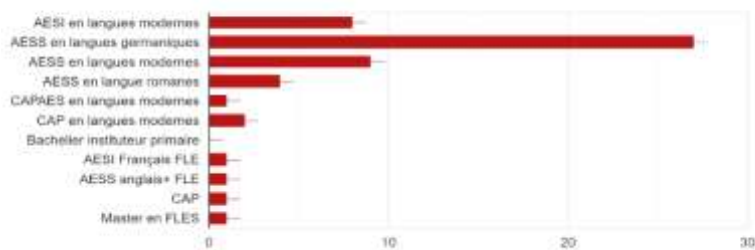
4. J'enseigne : (Cochez toutes les réponses qui vous correspondent)
53 réponses
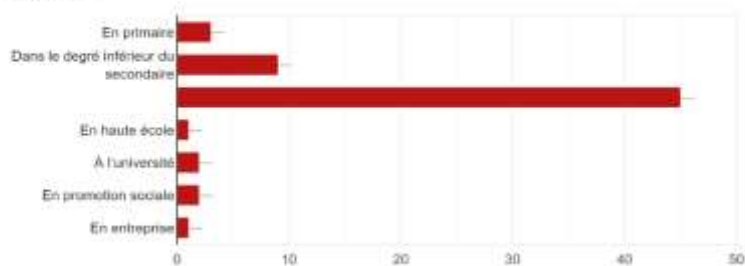
5. Dans quel(s) réseau(x) enseignez-vous? (plusieurs réponses possibles)
58 réponses
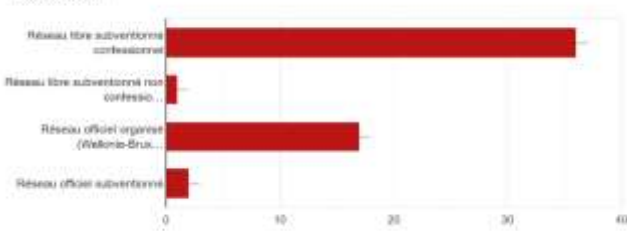
6. Dans quel(s) type(s) d'enseignement(s) enseignez-vous? (plusieurs réponses possibles)
53 réponses
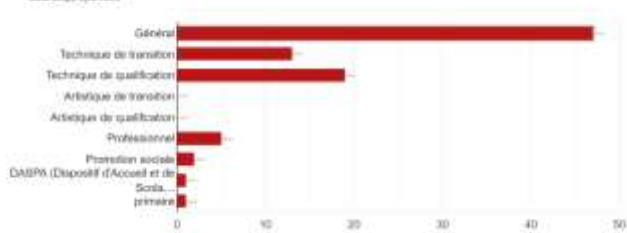
8. Quelle(s) langue(s) enseignez-vous ? (Vous pouvez cocher plusieurs réponses)
53 réponses
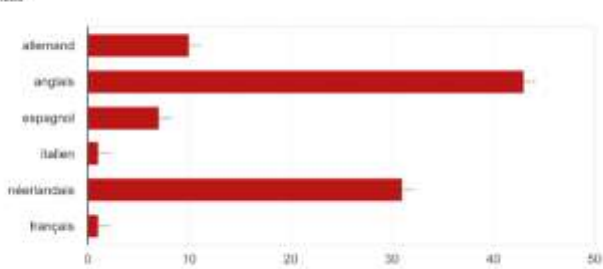
9. Cette année, j'enseigne à des élèves de ... dans le cadre d'un cours de ... (Vous pouvez cocher plusieurs réponses)
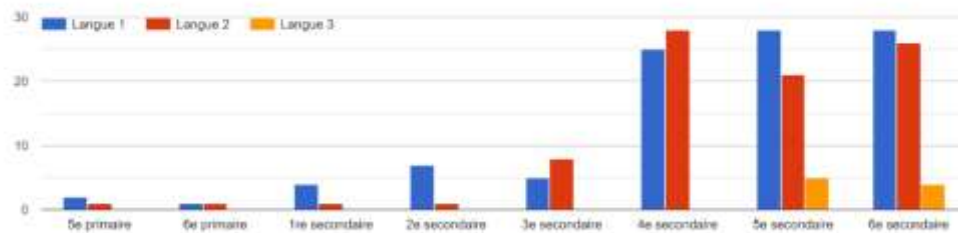
1. Je pratique la lecture à voix haute dans mon enseignement :
45 réponses
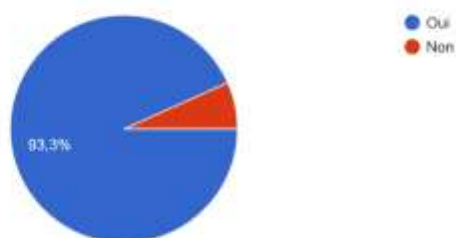
4. La lecture à voix haute aide à l'apprentissage des langues étrangères.
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

45,2%

52,4%
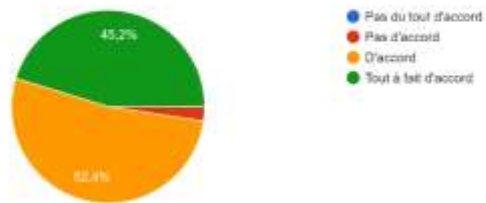
5. La lecture à voix haute aide à la prononciation en langue étrangère.
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

66,7%

31%
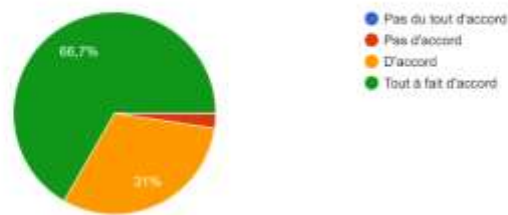
6. La lecture à voix haute est indispensable pour l'apprentissage progressif de l'expression orale car elle constitue le niveau 1 de l'acquisition progressive de l'expression orale.
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

42,9%

50%
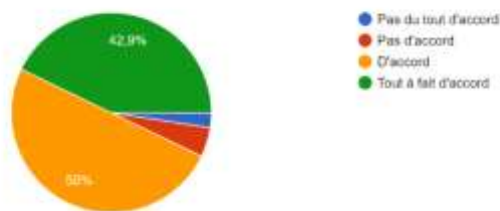
7. La lecture à voix haute aide à la compréhension à la LECTURE de textes en langue étrangère pour les élèves qui écoutent.
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

9,5%

38,1%
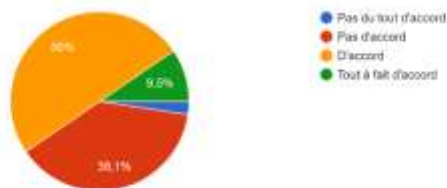
8. Pour l'élève qui lit à voix haute, cet exercice est néfaste pour sa compréhension à la LECTURE du texte.
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

45,2%

7,1%

9,5%

38,1%
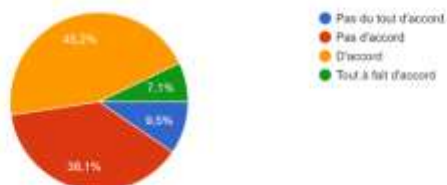
9. La lecture à voix haute aide à la compréhension à L'AUDITION pour les élèves qui écoutent.
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord
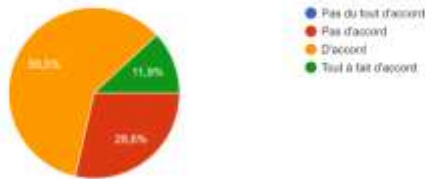
10. Si vous pensez que la lecture à voix haute aide à l'apprentissage des langues étrangères, dans quelle mesure êtes-vous d'accord avec les potentiels bénéfices présentés ci-dessous ?
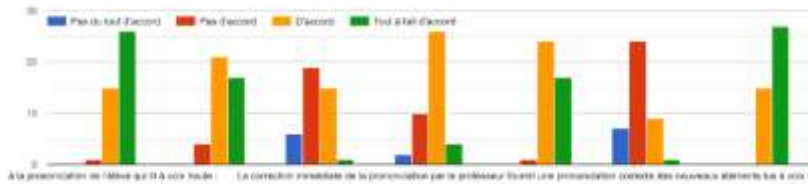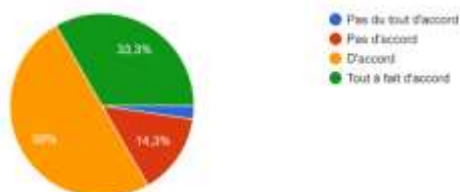

11. La lecture à voix haute en langue étrangère doit faire l'objet d'un apprentissage systématique tout au long de l'enseignement des langues modern...de la cinquième primaire à la fin du secondaire).
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord
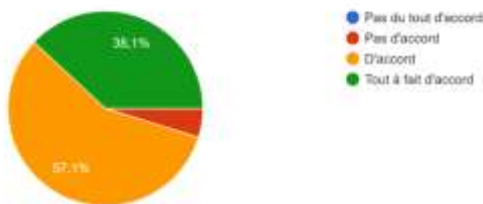
12. La PRONONCIATION en lecture à voix haute en langue étrangère doit faire l'objet d'un apprentissage systématique tout au long de l'enseig...(de la cinquième primaire à la fin du secondaire).
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord
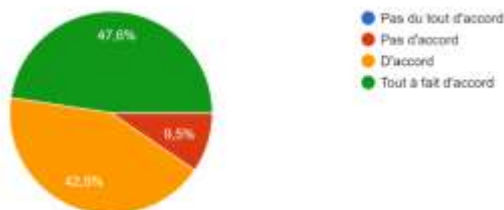
13. L'INTONATION de la phrase en lecture à voix haute en langue étrangère doit faire l'objet d'un apprentissage systématique tout au long de l'enseig...(de la cinquième primaire à la fin du secondaire).
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

14. L'EXPRESSIVITÉ en lecture à voix haute en langue étrangère doit faire l'objet d'un apprentissage systématique tout au long de l'enseignement des la...(de la cinquième primaire à la fin du secondaire).
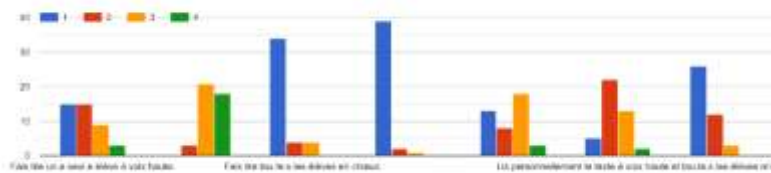
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord
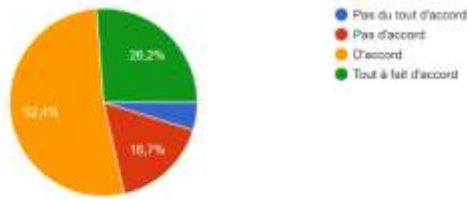
15. Je me sens compétent.e pour enseigner la lecture à voix haute.

42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

16. À quelle fréquence pratiquez-vous la lecture à voix haute ? (Plusieurs réponses possibles)

42 réponses
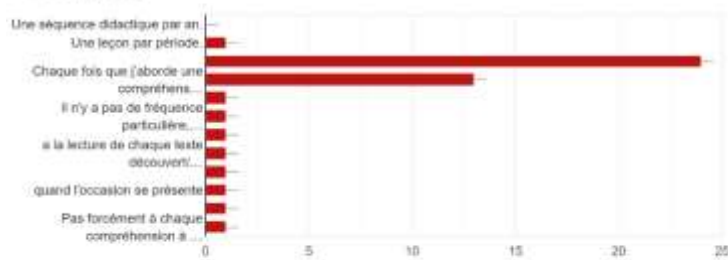
17. Quand je pratique la lecture à voix haute dans mon enseignement, je : 1 = jamais ; 2 = parfois ; 3 = souvent ; 4 = toujours.


18. Des exercices d'application sur la lecture à voix haute font partie de mon enseignement. Exemples : lecture à plusieurs voix avec un.e élève ...s présentée individuellement devant la classe, etc.
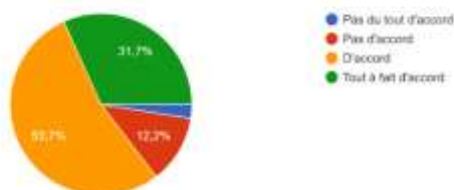
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord
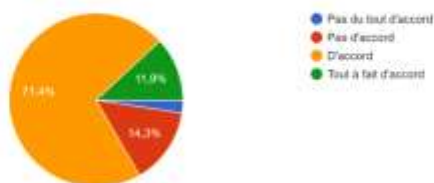
19. L'apprentissage de la lecture à voix haute est motivant pour l'expression orale en classe.
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord
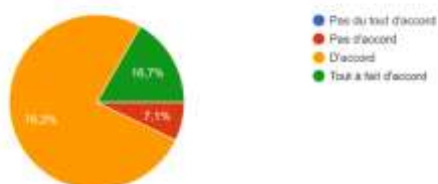
20. La lecture à voix haute devrait faire partie intégrante du programme de la formation LINGUISTIQUE initiale des enseignants.
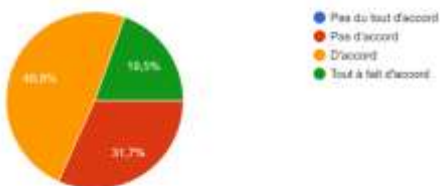41 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

21. La lecture à voix haute devrait faire partie intégrante du programme de la formation PÉDAGOGIQUE INITIALE des enseignants.
42 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord
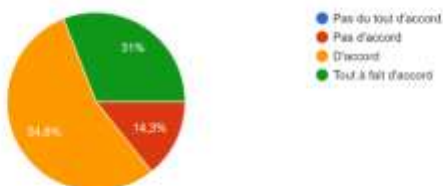
22. La lecture à voix haute devrait faire partie intégrante du programme de la formation PÉDAGOGIQUE CONTINUE des enseignants.
41 réponses

- Pas du tout d'accord
- Pas d'accord
- D'accord
- Tout à fait d'accord

23. Je ne pratique pas la lecture à voix haute dans mon enseignement, car :

Pas du tout d'accord   Pas d'accord   D'accord   Tout à fait d'accord

… haute est « ringarde », c'est un procédé d'un autre temps.   La lecture à voix haute en langue étrangère est un procédé qui est plus adapté à l'enseign…